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The Roots of the Nazi Concept of the Ideal German Peasant

By Paul Honigsheim†

ABSTRACT

Since the epoch of German Romanticism there exists an uninterrupted stream of thinking and feeling, which is not originally of primarily rural character but which opposes the kind of thinking, feeling, and living, characteristic of the German city. In this way the rudiments of a concept of rural life, considered the true life, is laid. This mentality appears especially in 14 movements and groups described in detail in the article. All of them emphasize viewpoints which alter were incorporated into the Nazi concept of peasant and rural life. This part of the Nazi program is not even a new combination of old elements, such syntheses having been built up previously. The case of the Nazis demonstrates the efficacy of the ideology on German rural life.

RESUMEN

Desde la época del romanticismo alemán existe una corriente ininterrumpida de pensamiento y sentimiento que no es originalmente de carácter especialmente rural, pero que está opuesta a la clase de pensamiento, sentimiento y vida característicos de la ciudad alemana. De este modo se forman los rudimentos de un concepto de vida rural, considerada como la verdadera vida. Esta mentalidad aparece especialmente en 14 movimientos y grupos descritos en detalle en el artículo. Todos hacen hincapié en puntos de vista que se incorporaron luego en el concepto nazista de la vida campesina y rural. Esta parte del programa nazista no es ni siquiera una nueva combinación de viejos elementos; tales síntesis habían sido hechas anteriormente. El caso de los Nazis demuestra la eficacia de la ideología en la vida rural alemana.

The United States is expected not only to help reorganize Germany in general but also her rural life in particular. This includes the necessity of influencing the mentality of the rural population, and especially the mentality of the youth. To be able to do so, the United States must know the existing Nazi-mentality. Especially the United States must know the predominant rural mentality and the Nazi-concept of the peasants which had been taught to and largely accepted by them. The Germans themselves are inclined to consider everything, even their own life and ideology, from an historical point of view.

Accordingly, a knowledge of the roots of the Nazi-concept of the ideal German peasant is necessary and timely.

On the European continent the interest in peasant life does not have a long history. In the epoch of the German Reformation the peasants had tried to change their situation by revolutionary means. This attempt had been crushed. The same happened to the ideology of anabaptists and similar religious groups which advocated help for the peasants. Accordingly the peasant, just as important as livestock, existed in the consciousness of the occidental society almost exclusively as the property of the feudal lord. Under those conditions rural life

† Michigan State College.

became almost synonymous with feudal rural life. And even in the feudal rural life no one found great interest. For in the absolutistic countries the feudal man lived largely at the court where the centralized bureaucratic administration became increasingly important. Moreover, closely related to the growing bureaucracy was the mercantilistic system. Mercantilism gave emphasis to manufactured products, foreign trade, rare metals, and coined money, i. e., to goods connected with urban, rather than with rural life.

After the mercantilistic practice had come to a climax under the French minister Colbert, opposition of primarily socio-economic character against mercantilism began to arise. Because a more universal opposition of primarily religiocultural character to the way of life of the French absolutism had already arisen this opposition gained attention. The opponents were the following: (1) The Jansenists, inner-catholic adversaries of Jesuitism and Gallicanism (the national French Catholicism) who accused both of being too secular; (2) The Trappists, a split from the Cistercian order, who opposed the wealthy and secular life of many monasteries, but rather insisted upon agricultural labor as the kind of work suited to the monk; (3) The Maurinians, a branch of the Benedictin order, who emphasized the importance and the right of the particular monastery as opposed to the ecclesiastical and political centralization; (4) The Archbishop Fenelon, who contrasted de-

centralization, quietude, and contemplation to centralization, conquest, and restlessness in the political, religious, and in the every day life of French absolutism. No one of these four programs was in itself a peasant ideology or even a primarily rural program. But by denying the traditional way of life of the dominant groups, courts, bishops, and bureaucrats in the capital and in provincial urban centers, they at least indirectly called the attention of their contemporaries to the non-urban, rural life. In this manner they prepared the way for two especially rural programs, namely the movement in favor of the power of the old nobility on their estates in the provinces (especially as represented by Boulainvilliers) and the Reform-Mercantilists, who maintained some ideas of mercantilism, but considered it one-sided because it neglected agriculture and rural life (especially as represented by Vauban and Boisguilbert).

This opposition to French absolutism forms one of the basic elements in the teaching of the following groups in the 18th century: (1) the French Physiocrats, who stressed the importance of land as basic economic value and as a source of other wealth rather than of manufactured goods and money; (2) the English and Scotch land-nationalizers, who agreed with the Physiocrats in the viewpoint just outlined but differed from them in wanting to eliminate land rent; (3) the French enlighteners (especially Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Condorcet) who, in spite of denying the theo-

retical background of the Physiocrats, nevertheless were interested in rural problems and incorporated rural history into their concept of universal history; (4) the anti-rationalistic wing of the 18th century, who denied the emphasis given to human reason by the enlighteners but rather found the true man in the savage, shepherd, fisherman, or peasant, living far from city, traffic, and rationalism. Examples of this ideal were the Scottish highlanders (Herder, the young Goethe), Corsicans (Rousseau) and low German peasants (Justus Moeser); (5) Protestant Pietism, which represented a primarily emotional Protestantism, was influenced by Jansenists and Fenelon, and became the religion of small groups in country towns, castles, and villages.

Upon the rationalistic ideologists of the 18th century economic liberalism, democracy, anarchism, and socialism of the 19th century are largely based. Since these are unimportant to the content of this paper, they do not merit further discussion. But all the anti-rationalistic movements mentioned above are forerunners of, and constituent elements in, the formation of German Romanticism. Non-German Romanticism likewise can be omitted since it is outside of the scope of this paper.¹

¹ Due to lack of space only the most essential publications can be mentioned in the footnotes. The citations refer almost exclusively to German works. Publications which originally were written in other languages but which were translated into German and have in this form been of influence in Germany, are cited according to that German translation which has been influential. Books which were originally written in

German Romanticism originated as an opposition to the unification and rationalistic-bureaucratic administration organized by Napoleon. The latter was thought to be a representative of the same mentality as that of the Enlightenment and the French Revolution. Romanticism was supported by the old feudal and other regional forces which Napoleon had restrained. At the same time it was idealistically embraced by persons who feel their mental vigor, artistic intuition, and religious ecstasy oppressed by the emphasis which enlightened philosophy gave to reason. The main ideas of German Romanticism were the following: (1) Emotion rather than reason is the essential; (2) totality is a metaphysical entity in contrast to the concept of the whole as being nothing but a sum, made of particular entities; (3) the human social group is a metaphysical entity in contrast to the enlightened theory that the group has been built through the will of the individuals and is composed of particular individuals; (4) organizations have to be built from up to down, rather than from down

English as well as books which were originally written in another language but translated into many languages (among them also into English) are cited according to the English translation. When the whole book falls into consideration, no special indication about exact citations is given. When there exist many editions which are different as to pagination but equal with regard to subdivision into books, chapters, etc., the subdivisions are given. If no special indications, such as chapter, etc., are used in the book under consideration, we use the expressions "no." or "nos." In citing German books the term "Verlag," i.e. publisher, has regularly been omitted.

to up; (5) any institution is unique and different from every other one, in contrast to the revolutionary aim toward equalization and to the Napoleonic goal of unification; (6) laws and institutions have to originate out of, and have to be based on tradition, in contrast to the laws issued by Napoleon according to rational construct.

In applying these general concepts, Romanticism has stressed the power of, and even attached itself to the interests of the following: (1) Protestant Orthodoxy and Revivalism, a union which was facilitated by the previously mentioned relationship between Pietism and Romanticism; (2) Catholicism, because some Romantics already considered Protestantism as a forerunner of Enlightenment and Revolution, and thereby rediscovered medieval Catholicism, its Thomistic social-philosophy, and glorification of estates-within-the-state; (3) special groups, which traditionally passed down from generation to generation, such as estates-within-the-state, guilds, the nobility and the peasantry; (4) nationality in its uniqueness.²

² G. W. F. Hegel, *Vorlesungen ueber die Philosophie der Geschichte*, Leipzig, Reclam, 1907, Einleitung, II, c, & III, b, pp. 90-94, 102-108, 116-125; *idem*, *Vorlesungen ueber die Geschichte der Philosophie*, Vol. I-III Berlin, Duncker & Humblot, 1833-1836, Vol. I, Einleitung, A, 2 & 3, pp. 32-64, Vol. III, III Teil, 3. Abschnitt, E, pp. 684-691; J. G. Fichte, *Der geschlossene Handelsstaat*, Jena, Fischer, 1920; F. W. Schelling, *Schriften zur Gesellschaftsphilosophie*, *ibid.*, 1926, pp. 206-254, 375-389, 463-469, 716-720, 777-789; F. v. Baader, *Schriften zur Gesellschaftsphilosophie*, *ibid.*, 1925, pp. 53f., 105, 280-309, 319-338, 342f., 347ff., 352ff., 369f., 395ff., 417f., 422f., 743-749, 756-770, 790-802, 819-825; *Gesellschaft und Staat im*

Out of this came interest in the origin and in the old feudal and rural kind of life of Hindus (Schlegel), Mohammedans (Hammer - Purgstall, Rueckert), Celtes (Zeuss), Slavs (Miklosich), Etruscans (Otfried Mueller), etc. At the same time some special historically based and structured social, political, economic, and juridical sciences originated. Such disciplines were: (1) The historical investigation and glorification of some rural feudal families by romantically minded historians, although they did not come from nobility themselves (Fahne, Lisch); (2) the historical school of law and its study of medieval, feudal, rural, and cooperative laws (Savigny, Hugo, Beseler); (3) the historical school of economics (Roscher). Most of all the forces were spent in the investigation of the rural history of the Teutonic peoples, especially their original rural communism (Grimm, Zeuss), nomadism (Arnold, Meitzen, Lamprecht, von der Goltz, Knapp), feudalism or peasantry (Eichhorn, Maurer, Waitz, Roth, von Below), rotation of crops (Hanssen, von Below, Dopsch), three-fallow-sys-

Spiegel deutscher Romantik, ed. J. Baxa, *ibid.*, 1924, pp. 36f., 91-118, 363-383, 433ff., 473ff., 485ff.; F. v. d. Marwitz, *Aus dem Nachlasse*, Berlin, 1852, Vol. I, pp. 28-31, 39, 159, 194f., 305, 323, 385, 405ff., 423, Vol. II, pp. 215, 225ff., 240-243, 249, 371, 379f., 385, 390f. The history of these movements may be found in the following publications: G. Salomon, *Das Mittelalter als Ideal der Romantik*, Muenchen, Drei Masken, 1922. F. Meinecke, *Weltbuergerium und Nationalstaat*, Muenchen & Berlin, Oldenbourg, many editions, I. Buch, pp. 1-273; *idem*, *Die Idee der Staatsraeson*, *ibid.*, many editions, III. Buch, 1. Kapitel, pp. 427-468.

tem (Eichhorn, Landau, Much), etc.³

This survey has led us up to the turn to the 20th century. It proves already that Romanticism did not die out in the middle of the 19th century as has often been asserted. On the contrary, there persists after that period some Romantic ideas, not exclusively within the scientific realm but rather in every sphere. Especially is this true with regard to the socio-economic and political spheres, even up to the epoch of Hitler. The individuals and groups which we have in mind criticize and undermine a kind of feeling, thinking, and living, which they thought to be an exclusively or primarily rationalistic, intellectualistic, technical, and urban one. By so doing they at least lay the rudiments of a concept of rural life, considered

as the true life. Moreover, many of these individuals and groups directly emphasize the German peasant as the especially ideal man. They can be classified according to a scheme containing fourteen main types. All of the phenomena coming into consideration belong primarily to one of these fourteen types; some of them may also belong to other types. However, we will describe them only when dealing with the type to which they primarily belong.

The late romantic and neo-romantic anthropological concept⁴ is opposed

³The history of these theories may be found in the following publications: A. Dopsch, *Die Wirtschaftsentwicklung der Karolingerzeit*, Vol. I, Weimar, Boehlau, 1912, no. 1, pp. 1-25; *idem*, *Wirtschaftliche und soziale Grundlagen der Europaischen Kulturentwicklung*, Vol. I, Wien, Seidel, 1923; no. 1, pp. 1-52; G. Schmoller, *Deutsches Statedewesen in aelterer Zeit*, Bonn & Leipzig, Schroeder, 1922, pp. 1-38; M. Weber, "Der Streit um den Charakter der altgermanischen Sozialverfassung," *Gesammelte Aufsätze zur Sozial- und Wirtschaftsgeschichte*, Tuebingen, Mohr, 1924, pp. 508-556; P. Honigsheim, "Max Weber as Historian of Agriculture," forthcoming; W. Schmidt, *Die Sprachfamilien und Sprachkreise der Erde*, Heidelberg, Winter, 1926, pp. 31, 39f., 64f.; W. Koppers, "Die ethnologische Wirtschaftsforschung," *Anthropos*, Vol. X-XI, St. Gabriel-Moedling bei Wien, 1915-1916, pp. 624 ff., 640-645, 975-981; H. Muehlestein, *Ueber die Herkunft der Etrusker*, Berlin, Frankfurter Verlag, 1929, pp. 21-24; E. Fiesel, "Etruskisch," *Grundriss der Indogermanischen Sprach und Altertumskunde*, Abteilung: Geschichte der Indogermanischen Sprachwissenschaft, II, no. 5; J. Friedrich, "Hethitisch und Kleinasiatische Sprachen," *ibid.*

⁴J. J. Bachofen, *Der Mythos von Orient und Occident*, Muenchen, Beck, 1916; *idem* *Das Lykische Volk*, Leipzig, Haessel, 1924, pp. 102-109; C. A. Bernoulli, *Johann Jakob Bachofen*, Basel, Schwabe, 1924, pp. 224-227, 406; *idem*, *Johann Jakob Bachofen als Religionsforscher*, Frauenfeld & Leipzig, 1924, Einleitung, pp. 5-9, 15-20; L. Gumpowicz, *Sozialphilosophie*, Innsbruck, Wagner, 1910, pp. 136-142, 160ff.; *idem*, *Ausgewählte Werke*, *ibid.*, Vol. II, 1926, I. Buch, no. II, 6, p. 20, II. Buch, nos. XI & XII, pp. 151-157, IV. Buch, nos. IV & V, pp. 252-265, Vol. IV, 1928, II. Buch, pp. 213-254; E. Hahn, *Die Wirtschaft der Welt*, Heidelberg, Winter, 1900, pp. 16, 186, 189, 197, 204-208, 227, 230, 261, 301, 309-313, *idem*, *Die Entstehung der wirtschaftlichen Arbeit*, *ibid.*, 1908, pp. 49ff.; *idem*, *Von der Hacke zum Pfluge* Leipzig, Quelle & Meyer, 1914, pp. 98-110; L. Frobenius, *Und Afrika Sprach*, Berlin-Charlottenburg, Vita, (n.d.), Vol. I, pp. 367-375, Vol. II, pp. 334-344, Vol. III pp. 363ff.; *idem*, *Das Sterbende Afrika*, Muenchen, Recht, (n.d.) pp. 9, 47; *idem*, *Paideuma*, *ibid.*, p. 23; F. Ratzel, "Die Afrikanischen Bogen," *Abhandlungen der philhist. Classe der Kgl. Saechsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften*, Vol. XIII, Leipzig, Hirzel, 1891; B. Ankermann, "Kulturkreise in Afrika," *Zeitschrift fuer Ethnologie*, Vol. 37, Berlin, 1908; *idem*, "Verbreitung und Formen des Totemismus," *ibid.*, Vol. 47, 1915; F. Graebner, *Methode der Ethnologie*, Heidelberg, Winter, 1911; *idem*, "Ethnologie," *Die Kultur der Gegenwart*, III. Teil, 5. Abteilung, Leipzig & Berlin, Teubner, 1923, pp. 445, 572-574; W. Schmidt & W. Koppers, *Gesellschaft und Wirtschaft der Voelker*, *Der Mensch aller Zeiten*, Vol.

to the liberal-optimistic-progressistic one of Waitz, Herbert Spencer, Bastian, Taylor, and their respective schools. The new anti-optimistic thought considers the change from primitive to modern, technical, and urban culture as nothing more than a fluctuating line of development rather than an uninterrupted and automatically occurring progress. Through such changes, the cultural values which are believed to have existed in an earlier epoch, are supposed to have been lost, at least for time. The most characteristic authors and schools were the following: (1) Bachofen, who regretted the disappearance of the pre-intellectualistic and anti-intellectualistic, pre-urban and anti-urban life of the early matrilinear society; (2) Gumplowicz, who believed in an uninterrupted series of recurrent periods of progress and regress; (3) Eduard Hahn, who considered the increasing importance of urban life and the simultaneous weakening of

rural life at the present time as perversion of the original and natural relation; (4) Frobenius, who found fault with occidental culture because it has lost some forms of human feeling, present among African Negroes; (5) The cultural-cyclical school. This group was especially opposed to the emphasis given to the parallel development by the evolutionists. Rather, it insisted upon the importance of migration of man and diffusion of cultural values, and therefore denied uninterrupted development and progress. It had been started by Ratzel, developed by Ankermann and Graebner, and elaborated as a metaphysically based system by William Schmidt. He felt that some forms of life existed already at the beginning of human history, which had great cultural value. They even were supposed to be the objectively and ethically correct ones. Later these values have been lost according to Schmidt. His explanation is this: Out of ani-

III, Regensburg, Habel, 1924, I. Teil, 2. Abschnitt, pp. 31-130, II. Teil, 1-3. Abschnitt, pp. 133-192, 8. Abschnitt, pp. 352-374, III. Teil, 2. Abschnitt, pp. 419-428, 5. Abschnitt, pp. 625-644; W. Schmidt, *Der Ursprung der Gottesidee*, 2. Auflage, Muenster, Aschendorf, 1926 and subsequent years, Vol. II, pp. 911, 923, 927, 963, Vol. III, pp. 11-23, 35, 47, 60-79, 133ff., 290-300, 321ff., 343-383, 419-424, 544. O. Menghin, *Weltgeschichte der Steinzeit*, Wien, Schroll, 1931, pp. 615ff.; *Festschrift, Publication d'Hommage, offerte au P. W. Schmidt*, ed. W. Koppers, Wien, Mechitaristen-Congregation, 1928, pp. 269-274, 349-365, 635-644. The history of these theories may be found in the following publications: P. Honigsheim, "Die geistesgeschichtliche Stellung der Anthropologie, Ethnologie, Urgeschichte und ihrer Hauptrichtungen," *ibid.*, pp. 844-864; *idem*, "Adolf Bastian," *Koelner Vierteljahrshefte fuer Soziologie*, Vol. VI, Muenchen & Leipzig, Duncker & Humblot, 1926, pp. 61-76;

idem, "Soziologische Fragestellungen in der gegenwaertigen praehistorischen und ethnologischen Literatur," *ibid.*, Vol. VII, 1928, pp. 331-343, 427-446; *idem*, "Ein Wort zu Adolf Bastians 100. Geburtstag," *IPEK, Jahrbuch fuer praehistorische und ethnographische Kunst*, Leipzig, Klinkhardt, 1927, pp. 82-91; *idem*, "Kulturkreislehre, praehistorisch-ethnologische Zusammenhaenge und primitive Kunst," *ibid.*, 1929, pp. 123-132; *idem*, "Eduard Hahn," *Anthropos*, Vol. XXIV, 1929, pp. 587-612; *idem*, "The Problem of Diffusion and Parallel Evolution with Special Reference to American Indians," *Papers of the Michigan Academy of Science*, Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press, Vol. XXVII, pp. 515f., *idem*, "The Philosophical Background of European Anthropology," *American Anthropologist*, Vol. XLIV, Menasha, The American Anthropological Association, pp. 384ff. (In these historical articles also other publications under consideration are listed).

mal husbandry nomadism there originated the centralized bureaucratic state of the ancient orient with its administrative urban centers, and out of that the modern occidental state. Accordingly primitive, pre-technical, pre-state, i. e., pre-urban forms of behavior are supposed to be good and true kinds of life, compared with the technical, urban forms which appeared later. Thus these anti-evolutionistic-anthropological concepts are certainly of a pessimistic character.

But long before their appearance an even more universal pessimism had arisen.

*Pessimism in the 19th century*⁵ has been taught in contrast to evolution and the belief in progress. The latter was felt to be the essential in the systems of the enlighteners and their liberal, democratic, socialistic, and anarchistic followers. Forms of

such pessimism are the primarily (1) religious pessimism propounded by the Dane Soeren Kierkegaard who opposed most of all the supposedly anti-religious modern urban life and thinking; (2) philosophical pessimism set forth by Schopenhauer who considered the world as bad in itself, men as inferior beings, will as cause of every evil, elimination of will as the goal, politics, democracy, parliamentarism, and any kind of activity as nonsense; (3) anti-European pessimism taught by Mazdasnans, Rosicrucians, Theosophs, Anthroposophs, Neo-Buddhists, and Neo-Dschainists, contrasting Asiatic intuition to European intellectualism; (4) historical pessimism, set forth by Ernst Bloch, Keyserling, Klages, Theodor Lessing and Spengler, who considered especially the development of the modern European world, its intellectualism, tech-

⁵ S. Kierkegaard, *Die Werke*, Sannerz & Leipzig, Eberhard Arnold, 1925; A. Schopenhauer, *Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung*, Vol. I & II, Leipzig, Brockhaus, many editions; M. Heindel, *Die Weltanschauung der Rosenkreuzer*, Leipzig, Theosophisches Verlagshaus, (n.d.); H. P. Blavatsky, *Der Schlussschlüssel zur Theosophie*, *ibid.*, 1924, pp. 4-12, 28f., 83ff., 211; Omar, *Geistliche und leibliche Wiedergeburt*, Freiburg, Geber, 1922; *idem*, *Zarathustra redivivus*, *ibid.*, P. Dahlke, *Buddhismus als Weltanschauung*, Muenchen-Neubiberg, Schloss, (n.d.) pp. If., 261; *idem*, *Die Bedeutung des Buddhismus fuer unsere Zeit*, *ibid.*, (n.d.); Vasetto, *Buddhismus als Reformgedanke*, *ibid.* pp. 3, 12, 33-84; W. Bohn, *Buddhismus die Religion der Erloesung*, *ibid.*, (n.d.) pp. V-VII; *idem*, *Die Religion des Jina*, *ibid.*, 1921, p. 10; R. Steiner, *Die Philosophie der Freiheit*, Berlin, Philosophisch-Anthroposophischer Verlag, many editions; *idem*, *Wie erlangt man Erkenntnisse der hoeheren Welten*, *ibid.*, 1920; *idem*, *Theosophie*, Stuttgart, Der Kommende Tag, many editions; L. Polzer-Hoditz, *Politische Betrachtungen*, *ibid.*, 1920, pp. 15, 45, 52-58, 102-108; *Vom Lebenswerk Rudolf Steiners*, Muenchen,

Kaiser, 1921, pp. 273-304; E. Block, *Geist der Utopie*, Muenchen & Leipzig, Duncker & Humblot, 1918, pp. 235-343; L. Klages, *Vom kosmogonischen Eros*, Jean, Diederichs, 1926; *idem*, *Zur Ausdruckslehre und Charakterkunde*, Heidelberg, Kampmann, 1927; *idem*, *Der Geist als Widersacher der Seele*, Vol. I-III, Leipzig, Barth, 1929-1932, especially Vol. III, Kapitel 55, 56, 58-69, 72-74. T. Lessing, *Europa und Asien*, Leipzig, Meiner, many editions; H. Muehlestein, *Russland und die Psychomachie Europas*, Muenchen, Beck, 1925; A. Spengler, *Untergang des Abendlandes*, Vol. I & II, *ibid.*, many editions; Graf H. Keyserling, *Schoepferische Erkenntnis*, Darmstadt, Reichel, 1922; *idem*, *Politik, Wirtschaft, Weisheit*, *ibid.*, 1922; L. Ziegler, *Das heilige Reich der Deutschen*, Vol. I & II, *ibid.*, 1925; *idem*, *Gestaltwandel der Goetter*, Vol. I & II, *ibid.*, 1922; *idem*, *Zwischen Mensch und Wirtschaft*, *ibid.*, 1927, pp. 203-379. The history of many of these movements may be found in P. Honigsheim, "Romantische und religios-mystisch verankerte Wirtschaftsgesinnungen," *Die Wirtschaftswissenschaft nach dem Kriege*, Vol. I, Muenchen & Leipzig, Duncker & Humblot, 1925, pp. 261-312.

nique, and industry as a decline. Every one of these pessimistic concepts helped to undermine the belief in the pre-eminence and even the value of the intellectual and technical culture which was believed to have been developed in the occidental city. By so doing, they likewise helped to draw attention to the forgotten peasant. The combination of elements of such pessimistic character with elements of an opposite character in the system of Toennies had a similar effect.

Gemeinschaft and Gessellschaft are the two terms contrasted by Toennies⁶. Among other things Toennies combined the Schopenhauerian belief in the predominance of the will in human history with elements of the Marxian theory of economic determination of cultural change. Moreover two forms of human groups were contrasted which he considered the two essential ones. These are: (1) "Gemeinschaft," i. e., community; here the group is supposed to be prior in time to and higher in value than the individual, and the will of the latter is determined by his belonging to the community; (2) "Gesellschaft," i. e. society; here the individual is supposed to have built up through his

own will the group, which in this case is believed to be nothing but a sum of individuals. Toennies argues that "Gesellschaft" increases with increasing predominance of centralized state, city, and urban life over rural life. He considered this a statement of fact, made without valuation. After World War I it was understood and used in another sense, i. e., as a complaint about the disappearing "Gemeinschaft." Moreover, the latter was then considered to be the higher type of life and to be represented most of all by the rural community. The latter was thought to be superior to the masses living in the Gesellschaft-like city. Although Toennies had never disdained the masses, now others did so. For prior to Toennies a primarily aristocratic ideology had originated out of the pessimism of Schopenhauer.

A neo-aristocratic concept⁷ had

⁶ F. Toennies, *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*, Berlin, Curtius, many editions. See "Translators Introduction" in *Fundamental Concepts of Sociology, Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft*, by F. Toennies, translated and supplemented by C. P. Loomis, New York, etc., American Book Company, (N.D.); Toennies, *Einfuehrung in die Soziologie*, Stuttgart, Enke, 1931, II. Buch; *idem, Soziologische Studien und Kritiken*, Vol. I, Jena, Fischer, 1925, no. XVII, 3, pp. 360-368; *idem*, "Soziologisches Symposium IX," *Zeitschrift fuer Voelkerpsychologie und Soziologie*, Vol. VII, 2, Leipzig, Hirschfeld, 1931, pp. 129-134.

⁷ F. Nietzsche, *Menschliches Allzumenschliches*, I. Band, 2 & 5. Hauptstueck, II. Band, 1. Abteilung, nos. 305-308, 321, 2. Abteilung, nos. 292-293, *Werke*, Leipzig, Krueger, many editions, Vol. II, pp. 5, 7-112, 211-267, Vol. III, pp. 150f., 158f., 351ff.; *idem, Morgenroete*, II. Buch, nos. 133-136, 145-147, III. Buch, nos. 193-194, 199-201, 206, *ibid.*, Vol. IV, pp. 135-141, 149ff., 184f., 191-194, 203-209; *idem, Froehliche Wissenschaft*, I. Buch, nos. 18, 31, 40, IV. Buch, no. 329, V. Buch, nos. 350f., 358, *ibid.*, Vol. V, pp. 56f., 71f., 77f., 249f., 286ff., 304-308; *idem, Jenseits von Gut und Boese*, IV. Hauptstueck, no. 126, V. & IV. Hauptstueck, *ibid.*, Vol. VII, pp. 102, 113-139, 235-274; *idem, Goetzendaemmerung*, *ibid.*, Vol. VIII, pp. 59-176; *idem, Umwertung aller Werte*, I. Buch, *ibid.*, Vol. VIII, pp. 217-314; *idem, Der Wille zur Macht*, I. Buch, nos. 125, 134, II. Buch, nos. 176, 274, III. Buch, no. 716, IV. Buch, *ibid.*, Vol. XV, pp. 232f., 238, 274, 345, Vol. XVI, pp. 173f., 277-413; M. Scheler, *Der Formalismus in der Ethik und die materielle Wertethik*, Halle, Niemeyer, 1927; *idem*, "Vorbilder und Fuehrer," *Schrif-*

been espoused as a new belief in and an emphasis given to the "elite" in contrast to democracy or masses. Influential representatives of this ideologic were (1) Nietzsche, who stemmed from Schopenhauer, but affirmed the will, believed in "great men," glorified aristocratic eras of the past, disdained the masses and especially opposed democracy, socialist parties, and labor unions; (2) Hans Blueher, who regretted the disappearance of true aristocratic leadership which was supposed to have existed in earlier societies and to have been lost in the modern liberal democratic, and bourgeois society; (3) Max Scheler, who insisted in the existence and perceptibility of a metaphysically based hierarchy of values in social life; (4) Stephan George and his circle who insisted upon re-establishment of a religious and secular aristocratism, similar to the early medieval Benedictine one. None of these, it is true, has emphasized peasantry or country life. But by so sharply opposing democracy, which in Europe had been developed and propagated almost exclusively in the city, they indirectly have turned the attention to the place, where true aristocratic life was supposed to have existed in the past, i.e. the rural country district. The latter appeared even more to be the places where true life existed, especially when this belief in elites was connect-

ed with the idea of racial superiority. That occurred relatively often.

Racism^s had been conceived in opposition to humanitarianism, liberalism, internationalism, and egalitarianism. The main steps in the history of its entrance into and its development in Germany are represented through the following persons: (1) Darwin and Herbert Spencer; although they themselves were certainly not true racists, they emphasized the survival of the fittest and similar theories. Therefore, they provided the rationale for the superiority of some racial groups over others and they were used as justification for race struggle and suppression of supposedly inferior races by supposedly superior ones; (2) Gobineau and La-

^s C. Darwin, *The Origin of Species*, New York, Appleton, many editions, Vol. I, chap. IV, pp. 97-163; H. Spencer, *Synthetic Philosophy*, *ibid.*, many editions, (1) *First Principles of a New System of Philosophy*, Part II, chap. 12-18, pp. 278-400, (2) *The Principles of Sociology*, Vol. 1, part III, pp. 331-475; R. Wagner, "Das Judentum in der Musik," *Gesammelte Schriften und Dichtungen*, 3. Auflage, Vol. V, Leipzig, Fritzsche, 1898, pp. 66-85; *idem*, "Deutsche Kunst und Deutsche Politik," *ibid.*, Vol. VII, pp. 30-124; *idem*, "Aufklarungen ueber das Judentum in der Musik," *ibid.*, Vol. VIII, pp. 238-260; *idem*, "Zur Einfuehrung der Arbeit des Grafen Gobineau," *ibid.*, Vol. X, pp. 33-35; *idem*, "Was ist deutsch?," *ibid.*, Vol. X, pp. 36-53; P. de Lagarde, *Ausgewaehlte Schriften*, Muenchen, Lehmann, 1924, pp. 3, 63, 83ff., 174, 191-221; H. Wirth, *Der Aufgang der Menschheit*, Jena, Diederichs, 1928; *idem*, *Was heisst Deutsch*, *ibid.* 1931. See also: R. Richter, *Essays*, Leipzig, Meissner, 1913, nos. 6 & 11, pp. 137-177, 303-331; H. V. Gerlach, *Erinnerungen eines Junkers*, Berlin, Die Welt am Montag, (n.d.) no. XII, pp. 107-116; F. Naumann, *Demokratie und Kaisertum*, Berlin-Schoeneberg, Hilfe, many editions, II. Abschnitt, no. 2, p. 106; A. Stillich, *Die Politischen Parteien in Deutschland*, Vol. I, Leipzig, Klinkhardt, 1908, no. VI, pp. 176ff., no. VIII, pp. 236f.

ten aus dem Nachlass, Berlin, Der neue Geist, 1933, pp. 151-224. F. Gundolf, *George*, Berlin, Bondi, 1921, pp. 26, 45f., 89, 185, 208, 227, 245-248. See P. Honigsheim, "Max Scheler als Sozialphilosoph," *Koelner Vierteljahrshefte*, etc., Vol. VIII, 1929, pp. 94-108.

pouge, who notwithstanding their French origin, nevertheless glorified the Nordic man as a supposedly superior being; (3) Richard Wagner, Chamberlain, Lagarde, Woltmann, Boeckel, and Friedrich Lange, who in more or less the same way combined elements of Schopenhauer and Nietzsche, Darwin and Herbert Spencer, Gobineau and Lapouge, with Anti-Semitism and a supposedly German Christianity; (4) Herman Wirt, who combined a new theory of the "Atlantis" with the theory of the superiority of the Nordic man. Everyone listed above considers the city dweller as racially impure and degenerate in contrast to the peasant, who was thought to be the truer nordic man. Moreover, many of these racists hated the city for being the place where bureaucracy and centralized administration originated and developed. These two phenomena were certainly not always but relatively often regarded as being not Germanic but rather of Romanic origin. Therefore ideologists claiming the superiority of the Germans were often not centralists but federalists.

Federalism⁹ had been maintained by Constantin Frantz and Planck in

opposition to the foundation of the German Empire under Bismarckian and Prussian leadership. Frantz especially remained almost completely isolated during his lifetime and found only a limited number of adherents, mostly among small conservative opposition groups in Hannover, Hessen, and Mecklenburg during the era of Bismark and William II. Frantz was then rediscovered and glorified during and especially since the end of World War I by Friedrich Wilhelm Foerster, Heldmann and others. All of them favored a decentralized Central European Federation, including German, Slavic, and Hungarian speaking peoples. They also gave emphasis to

⁹ K. C. Planck, *Testament eines Deutschen*, Jena Diederichs, 1912, III. Teil, pp. 578-692; C. Frantz, *Deutschland und der Foederalismus*, Stuttgart & Berlin, Deutsche Verlagsanstalt, 1921, pp. 38-52, 69-216. See also: E. Stamm, *Konstantin Frantz*, *ibid.*, 1930, II. Hauptstueck, no. 1, pp. 143-173, no. 2, pp. 213-235, no. 3 pp. 254-261; E. Quadflieg, "Dokumente zum Werden von Constantin Frantz," *Historisches Jahrbuch der Goerres Gesellschaft*, Vol. LIII, no. 3, Koeln, Bachem, 1933; M. Haene, *Die Staatsideen des Konstantin Frantz*, Gladbach-Rheidt, Volksverein, 1929, pp. 107-163; H. Schwann-Schneider, *Deutsche Weltpolitik im Lichte Constantin Frantz*, Ludwigsburg

bei Stuttgart, Friede durch Recht, 1923. F. W. Foerster, *Politische Ethik und Politische Paedagogik*, Muenchen, Reinhardt, 1920, IV, nos. 5-12, pp. 210-348; *idem*, *Autoritaet und Freiheit*, Kempten & Muenchen, Koesel, many editions; *idem*, *Jugendseele, Jugendbewegung, Jugendziel*, Muenchen & Leipzig, Rotapfel, (n.d.) no. 8, pp. 373-418; *idem*, *Erziehung und Selbsterziehung*, Zuerich, Schultess, 1921, no. VI, pp. 277-285. See W. Fabian, *Friedrich Wilhelm Foerster*, Berlin, Schwetschke, 1924, pp. 56ff; A. Umfried, *Anti-Treitschke*, Esslingen, Langguth, (n.d.) pp. 68ff; H. Schwann-Schneider, *Einheitsstaat oder Foederatives System*, Ludwigsburg etc. Friede etc. 1927; C. Berger, *Bismarcks Politik im Lichte des Christlichen Gewissens*, *ibid.* (n.d.); K. Heldmann, *Kriegserlebnisse eines deutschen Geschichtsprofessors*, *ibid.*, 1922, pp. 9, 61, 79. The main collections of publications of German Federlistic Associations were: *Das deutsche Deutschland, Flugschriften zum organischen Wiederaufbau Deutschlands*, *ibid.*, since 1921, and *Schriften der Reichsgemeinschaft deutscher Foederalisten*, ed. B. Schmittmann, Koeln, *Reich und Heimat*, since 1929. The main publications of the Catholic Federalists were the revue *Reich und Heimat* and the *Flugblaetter des Reichs und Heimatbundes deutscher Katholiken*, both ed. by B. Schmittmann, *ibid.*, since 1925. A short history of the whole movement may be found in B. Jacob, *Der Foederalismus*, Hameln, Suedhannoversche Landeszeitung, 1920, chap. 4, pp. 20-33.

the uniqueness of every nation, even every tribe and dialectical group within every nation. Special emphasis was given to every German tribe (Stamm), county (Gau), and peasant culture in these various counties. To give them the possibility of living a life of their own, Frantz and his adherents opposed a society subdivided into classes and in its place idealized a society subdivided into estate-within-the state.

The ideology of the state composed of estates-within-the-state, the so-called "Staende-Staat,"¹⁰ had been maintained uninterruptedly by many Catholics, conservative Protestants, and Federalists in Germany and neo-romantic metaphysicists, such as Othmar Spann in Austria. They were opposed to the democratic ideology of the open class system, to the concept of the state composed of social classes and also to the Marxian ideal of a classless and estateless society. All adherents of the estate-within-the-

state-ideology emphasize the importance and value of the peasant-estate, the so-called "Bauernstand." The latter was then usually expected to develop a genuine peasant culture and the traditional regional and local mores and cultural values of the various rural districts. To realize this latter purpose, a special rural education has often been recommended.

Rural education for peasants¹¹ as

¹⁰ N. F. S. Grundtvig, *Die Volkshochschule*, Jena, Diederichs, 1927; *idem*, *Volkheit*, *ibid.*, 1927; F. Lembke, "Die Daenische Volkschule," *Zeitschrift fuer das gesamte Fortbildungsschulwesen*, Sonderheft I, Kiel und Leipzig, 1904; Haccius, *Eine niedersaechsisch-lutherische Volkshochschule fuer unser Landvolk*, Hermannsburg 1919; V. Hoff, *Die niedersaechsische Volkshochschule*, Bremen, 1919, pp. 43, 45f., 50, 65; G. Stammeler, *Zweck und Ziele der Bauernhochschule*, Kolberg, Kolberger Tageblatt (n.d.); B. Tanzmann, *Denkschrift zur Berggruendung einer deutschen Volkshochschule*, Dresden-Hellerau, Hakenkreuz-Verlag, (n.d.); *idem*, *Die deutsche Bauernhochschule*, *ibid.* 1919; E. Engelhardt, *Die Fichte Hochschule*, Hamburg, Verlag deutsches Volkstum, (n.d.); *idem*, *Fichtes Erziehungsgedanken und die deutsche Volkshochschule*, *ibid.* (n.d.); H. Kruse, *Heimatschulen und Heimatforschung*, Muenster, Aschendorf, 1919; R. Herrmann, *Ratgeber fuer das Dorftheater*, Berlin, Deutsche Landbuchhandlung, 1916; F. Staudinger, *Kurze Uebersicht ueber das genossenschaftliche Bildungswesen*, Hamburg, Verlagsanstalt des Zentralverbandes deutscher Konsumvereine, 1911, pp. 22f., 28; F. Mann's *Paedagogisches Magazin*, Langensalza, Beyer, nos. 694, 706, 719, 757, 895, 1197; *Freie Bildung*, *Halbmonatsschrift des Schleswig Holsteinischen Verbands fuer freies Bildungswesen*, Neumuenster, 1919-1920, I. Jahrgang, nos. 1, 2, 8, 9, 10 (many articles); *Archiv fuer laendliches Bildungswesen*, Heft 1, Berlin, Deutsche Landbuchhandlung, 1919 (many articles). See P. Honigshaim, "Uebersicht ueber die bestehenden Volksbildungseinrichtungen und-stroemungen," *Soziologie des Volksbildungswesens*, Muenchen & Leipzig, Duncker & Humblot, pp. 90-103; (here also other publications under consideration are listed); *idem*, "Das laendliche Volksbildungswesen," *ibid.*

¹¹ F. Vigener, *Ketteler*, Muenchen und Berlin, Oldenbourg, 1924, pp. 389, 507; T. Brauer, *Produktionsfaktor Arbeit*, Jena, Fischer, 1925, pp. 140, 194; *idem*, *Der moderne deutsche Sozialismus*, Freiburg, Herder, 1929, pp. 199, 310, 354; *idem*, *Adolf Kolping*, *ibid.*, 1923, p. 56; *idem*, *Deutsche Sozialpolitik und deutsche Kultur*, *ibid.*, 1926, pp. 90, 102; *idem*, *Ketteler*, Hamburg, Hanseatische Verlagsanstalt, (n.d.) pp. 134-138; F. Mueller, *Franz Hitze*, *ibid.*, pp. 33, 37, 176; P. Siebertz, *Karl Fuerst zu Loewenstein*, Koesel, Pustet, 1924, p. 131; J. Giese, *Sozialromantische Richtungen im Katholizismus*, Muenchen, 1932, pp. 5-10; E. K. Winter, *Die Sozialmetaphysik der Scholastik*, Leipzig, Deuticke, 1929, p. 128; H. v. Muehler, *Grundlinien einer Philosophie der Staats- und Rechtslehre nach evangelischen Prinzipien*, Berlin, Wiegandt, 1873, pp. 224 f.; O. Spann, *Der Wahre Staat*, Leipzig, Quelle und Meyer, many editions, III. Teil, pp. 24-36, pp. 195-315.

contrasted to the urban one is a very recent sociological phenomenon. Usually peasant education, unlike that of the children of the feudal lords in the rural districts was nothing more than an imitation of urban education. It certainly did not consider the rural mores and ways of life as unique values, worthwhile to be maintained and transferred to posterity through education. Only some rural cultures which we may say were characterized by self-conscious orientation developed an especially rural education. The latter was then often connected with the religious faith, dominant within the rural group under consideration. This happened first in Denmark. Here the Lutheran minister and later Bishop Grundtvig built up rural schools for adult peasants. He intended thereby to maintain rural mentality and mores in connection with Lutheranism and Danish national feeling. His system spread to Norway, Sweden, Finland, and even the north-German province, Schleswig-Holstein. It became known in Germany and was propagated as a means of maintaining and developing especially rural cultures which were thought to be worth preserving. These rural peoples' academies came from Scandinavia, the classical home of rural cooperatives. Accordingly, they often were propagated by groups favoring rural cooperatives in Germany.

Cooperativism¹² has been espoused

¹² O. Gierke, *Das deutsche Genossenschaftsrecht*, Vol. I-IV, Berlin, Weidmann, 1873-1914. See also: F. Toennies, *Einfuehrung, etc.*, 43-45, pp. 225-236; C. P. Loomis, *op. cit.*, p. X, footnote 4.

in opposition to ideologies arising out of systems of liberal individualistic production. In some parts of Europe a few original rural cooperatives remained in existence. They had begun to attract some interest, since the arrival of an opposition to the absolutistic state, especially among the Romanticists and most of all among the historical school of law. Gierke representing the latter group investigated the history of German cooperatives. At the same time he recommended their maintenance and reconstruction, and struggled to get laws which would assist in retaining and protecting cooperatives. Federalists and others supported this claim. They considered the rural cooperatives as being of especially pronounced German character. In a few cases such a cooperativism has been combined with a special theory concerning land rent.

*The ideology of the central role of land rent*¹³ has been elaborated by

¹³ A. Damaschke, *Die Bodenreform*, Jena, Fischer, many editions; S. Gesell, *Die natuerliche Wirtschaftsordnung*, Berlin & Bern, Freiland-Freigeld, many editions; *idem*, *Internationale Valuta-Association*, Sontra in Hessen, Freiwirtschaftlicher Verlag, 1920; O. Weissleder, *Die beiden Grundfehler unserer Wirtschaftsordnung*, *ibid.*, 1919; P. Kluepfel, *Lohn und Geldentwertung*, *ibid.*, 1919; T. Christen, *Die absolute Waehrung des Geldes*, *ibid.*, 1920; W. Beckmann, *Sozialisierung, Bodenreform, Freiwirtschaft*, Erfurt, Freiland-Freigeld Verlag, 1921; *Die Freiwirtschaft*, *ibid.*, since 1919; F. Oppenheimer, *System der Soziologie*, Vol. III, Jena, Fischer, 1924, XI. Abschnitt, no. 2, pp. 1029-1122; *idem*, *Die Siedelungsgenossenschaft*, *ibid.*, 1922, pp. 417-638; *idem*, *Wege zur Gemeinschaft*, Muenchen, Hueber, 1924, pp. 27-89, 218-297, 411-441; *idem*, "Pseudoprobleme der Wirtschaftspolitik," *Die Wirtschaftswissenschaft, etc.* Vol. I, pp. 323-347; *idem*, "Die Wanderung," *Verhand-*

land-nationalizers in opposition to the laissez-faire-liberalism as well as to Marxianism and Anarchism. All three were criticized for being too exclusively interested in urban, industrial, and monetary problems. The theory originated in the English-Scottish 18th Century on one hand, and among the German Romantic cooperators on the other. It also spread to America, where Henry George was the most outstanding writer. Baltzer, Stamm, Fluerscheim, and Wehberg were the most outstanding German writers, although they were almost totally ineffective. Indeed Adolph Damaschke popularized this movement in the beginning of the 20th century, but he turned it almost exclusively in the direction of protecting urban land from becoming an object of financial speculation, thereby protecting the urban lodgers against the proprietor. Differing somewhat from Damaschke Silvio Gesell built up a new program

lungen des VI. Deutschen Soziologentages, Tuebingen, Mohr, 1929, pp. 147-172. See also: P. Honigsheim, "Schlusswort," *ibid.*, pp. 202f., *idem*, "Viehzuechternomadismus, Reichtumsbildung, Bodenrente, Staatsgenese," *Koelner Vierteljahrshefte*, etc. Vol. XI, 1932, pp. 75-88. The history of the movement may be found in the following publications: *idem*, "Volkshochschule und Bodenreform," *Westdeutsche Wochenschrift*, Vol. II, no. 7, Koeln, WDW Verlags-Gesellschaft, 1920, pp. 99f.; *idem*, "The Sociological Doctrines of Franz Oppenheimer," *Introduction to the History of Sociology*, ed. H. E. Barnes, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, forthcoming, (here also other publications under consideration are listed); A. Damaschke, *Geschichte der Nationaloekonomie*, Jena Fischer, many editions, chap. X (a biased book); F. Oppenheimer, *System etc.*, Vol. II, 1926, II. Abschnitt, No. 1, pp. 24-184; H. Wehberg, "Ein deutscher Vorkaempfer fuer internationale Verstaendigung," *Die Friedenswarte*, Vol. 37, *Zentraloekonomie*, Jena, Fischer, many editions, 238.

indicating how to eliminate the land rent. But his system was at the same time connected with a special theory concerning the origin and possibility of eliminating the interest on capital. The latter part of his system was much criticized and opposed. Therefore, the whole system (including the theory about essence and elimination of land rent) failed to find many adherents except for a small group. In contrast, Oppenheimer built up a new system. Based on anthropology and history he combined a land rent theory with the marginal utility theory, federalistic and cooperative ideas. Most of all he claimed a society based on peasant, producer cooperatives. Because Oppenheimer was Jewish his ideas were not accepted officially by nationalistically minded groups. Nevertheless, he was widely read and discussed and thereby helped to direct the interest toward rural life as the essential one. This was facilitated by another fact. Into the same German Republic where Oppenheimer's ideas were discussed, the interest in and the admiration of the peasant's life of other nations, i.e. of Hindus and Russians had been introduced.

The Hindus have stimulated new interest in rural life. Since the days of Warren Hastings and the India Company, the old literature produced by natives of the British East Indies, (mainly those written in Sanskrit and to a smaller extent, those written in Dravidian languages) had found the interest of enlighteners, romanticists, and philological specialists, who

taught at least Sanskrit in every German University. On the contrary the contemporary natives of the Indies were known only as subjects of the British colonial politics and perhaps of missionary work. Changes occurred through the appearance of Gandhi.¹⁴ In contrast to other countries, in Germany he was considered as the preacher not only of non-resistance, but also of anti-industrialism and the return to rural primitivity. This was felt to be a superior way of life, which had maintained such cultural values as had been lost by the occidental man. This feeling has to an even much larger extent been developed by influences coming from pre-Soviet-Russia.

The Russian peasant collectivity, the Mir, had originally been rediscovered and proclaimed to the Russians as well as to the Western World by Haxthausen. He was a conservative feudal German who had been connected with later Romanticism. He considered the Mir as an especially Russian institution. In Russia the older, primarily rural, revolutionary movement of the Narodniki largely used the ideas of Haxthausen. They advocated that the Russian revolution should be accomplished by the Russian peasants and that the future Russian society should primarily be based upon rural collectivities. At the same time Slavo-

philism had arisen. This was a conservative movement, likewise somewhat influenced by German Romanticism. It insisted upon homogeneity, uniqueness, and superiority of the Slavic peoples. This movement also embraced the viewpoint of Haxthausen that rural collectivity is an especially Slavic way of life. Like the Slavophiles the Greek Orthodox Russian fiction writer, Dostoevsky, considered religiously based collectivity feeling and brotherly love to be the distinguishing characteristic of the simple rural Russian in contrast to the presumably isolated, individualistic, and selfish occidental man. This view of the simple Russian man especially impressed the German readers of Dostoevsky. To some extent the Russian sectarian and conscientious objector Tolstoi was interpreted in the same way. Under the influence, of both, the new mentality in Germany came to oppose modern individualism, (supposed to be identical with selfishness) and cities, which were considered as the place where such selfish individualism had become the dominant kind of life. Rural life appeared then as the more brotherly one.¹⁵ Such valuation spread relative-

¹⁴ C. F. Andrews, *Mahatma Gandhi's Ideas*, including selections from his writing, New York, MacMillan, 1930; *Mahatma Gandhi, His Own Story*, ed. by C. F. Andrews, *ibid.*, 1931, chap. XIII & XIV, pp. 203-212, 223-235; *Mahatma Gandhi at Work, His Own Story Continued*, ed. by C. F. Andrews, *ibid.* 1931.

¹⁵ Count L. Tolstoi, *Moral Tales, The Complete Works*, Boston, Dana, Estes & Co., 1914, Vol. XII, pp. 327-519; *idem, My Confession, ibid.*, Vol. XIII, pp. 3-90; *idem, The Four Gospels*, esp. chap. 4, *ibid.*, Vol. XIV, pp. 207-302; *idem, What Shall We Do Then? ibid.*, Vol. XVII, pp. 3-340; *idem, On Life*, chap. 21-34, *ibid.*, Vol. XX, pp. 318-405; *idem, Resurrection, ibid.*, Vol. XXI & XXII; F. Dostoevsky *The Brothers Karamazov*, esp. No. V, *The Novels*, Vol. I, New York, Macmillan, 1923; *idem, The Idiot, ibid.*, Vol. II; *idem, The Possessed, ibid.*, Vol. III; *idem, Crime and Punishment, ibid.*, Vol. IV; *idem, The House of the Dead, ibid.*, Vol. V;

ly easily in Germany, because here at least one individual had already tried to realize such an ideal in his own life and had been admired greatly after his death. The almost mythical "Rembrandtdeutsche" is the man to whom we refer.

The Rembrandtdeutsche praised the low German peasant life as true German, Christian, and even human life. This view actually came to be considered and accepted as the quintessence of the new gospel preached by Julius Langbehn. He wrote anonymously the book "Rembrandt als Erzieher."¹⁰ Here he represented the Dutch painter Rembrandt as the most characteristic representative of low German religiosity, mentality, and

feeling. Moreover he contrasted his own intuitive historical understanding to the historical and philological sciences taught in German universities. He also contrasted traditional art, poetry, and music of regional and local character to the international and intellectualistic art of the metropolis and capital. Furthermore he contrasted a natural, rural life to unnatural urban life. Langbehn himself was of old low-German origin. Although he was a great scholar and had become very famous through his book, he lived a completely poor and secluded life, strictly opposing any compromise with his urban and intellectual contemporaries. Later he had contacts almost exclusively with unlettered lower middle class people and peasants. Although he made a great effort to maintain his anonymity, his name and way of life later became known. His kind of life tremendously impressed a whole sector of the German people. This group was already prepared by its own ideals, struggles, and life to accept and to follow the teaching of the "Rembrandtdeutsche." We have in mind the German youth movement.

*The German youth movement*¹⁷ started in the 90's of the last century.

idem, The Insulted & Injured, ibid., Vol. VI; idem, A Raw Youth, ibid., Vol. VII; idem, Pages from the Journal of an Author, Boston, Luce, 1911, chap. 3, pp. 33-83. Neither the political writings of Dostoevski nor the works of the most outstanding Slavophil Kireevsky are translated into English; accordingly the German translations must be used; F. M. Dostojewski, Politische Schriften, Muenchen, Piper, 1923, esp. no. II, pp. 134-153, 185-232, 282-297; J. W. Kirejewski, Drei Essays, Muenchen, Drei Masken, 1921, esp. no. II, pp. 91-94, 129-131, 136-141. See also: E. H. Carr, Dostoevsky, Boston & New York, Hough Mifflin, 1931, pp. 219-232, 266-296; P. Honigsheim, "Greek Orthodoxism, Sovietism, and Rural Collectivism in Eastern Europe," The Ohio Valley Sociologist, Vol. XVII no. 2, Columbus, 1946, pp. 7f.; idem, "The Relation of Russian Orthodox Religion to Soviet Expansion," The Mid-West Sociologist, Vol. VIII, no. 2, Des Moines, 1946, pp. 4f. A more detailed article on the importance of the Russian rural collectivities, written by the author of this paper, is forthcoming soon.

¹⁰ *Rembrandt als Erzieher*, von einem Deutschen, Leipzig, Hirschfeld, many editions; J. Langbehn, *Der Geist des Ganzen*, Freiburg, Herder, 1930, I. Teil, no. 2, Volksgemeinschaft, pp. 31-35. See B. M. Nissen, *Der Rembrandtdeutsche Julius Langbehn*, *ibid.*, 1926.

¹⁷ Essence, origin, and history of the German youth movement: C. Luetkens, *Die deutsche Jugendbewegung*, Frankfurt, Societaets Druckerei, 1928; T. Herrle, *Die deutsche Jugendbewegung in ihren wirtschaftlichen und gesellschaftlichen Zusammenhaengen*, Gotha, Perthes, 1922; M. Blueher, *Wandervogel, Geschichte einer Jugendbewegung*, Vol. I & II, Priem am Chiemsee, Kampmann & Schnabel, many editions, (a biased book); M. Schellenberger, *Werden und Wirken der freideutschen Jugendbewegung*, Leipzig, Neulandhaus 1921; Budden-

The originators were high school boys and students, sons of upper middle class bourgeois and of academically trained public functionaries. They rejected the supposedly unnatural life of their parents in the cities, a life considered to be a life of luxury, selfishness, and intellectualism. They also refused vigorously to enter any kind of tutelage organized by state, church, or other adult institution.

sieg, *Vom Geist und Beruf der freideutschen Jugendbewegung*, Lauenburg, Saal, 1924; P. Honigsheim, "Jugendbewegung und Erkenntnis," *Versuche zu einer Soziologie des Wissens*, ed. M. Scheler, Muenchen and Leipzig, Duncker & Humblot, 1924, pp. 389-406; *idem*, "Romantische und religioes-mystisch" etc., *op. cit.*, pp. 269-280. Youth movement and politics: *Junge Republik*, ed. Walter Hammer, Wertter bei Bielefeld, Fackelreiter (n.d.). Protestantism and youth movement: L. Cordier, *Evangelische Jugendkunde*, Vol. I & II, 2. edition, Schwerrin, Bahn, 1925-1927, especially Vol. II, chap. 24-32; *Christdeutsche Stimmen*, Herborn, Christdeutscher Bund, since 1920; *Neuland Hefte*, Eisenach, Neuland, since 1916; *Kommende Gemeinde*, herausgegeben im Auftrage der Koengener von J. W. Hauer Tuebingen, Goebel, since 1928; *Unser Bund, Zeitschrift der Aelteren im B. d. J.*, Jena, Thueringer Verlagsanstalt, since 1911; H. Stehn, *Unser Weg, Geschichte des Bundes deutscher Jugendvereine*, 1932; Jena, Bund deutscher Jugendvereine, 1922; W. Staehlin, *Vom Sinn und Segen des Dienens*, *ibid.* (n.d.); *idem*, *Jesus und die Jugend*, *ibid.*, 1921; *idem*, *Unsere geistige Lage*, Berlin, Mittler, 1922; Kertz, *Die Botschaft*, Barmen, B. K. Verlag, 1926. Catholicism and youth movement: P. Guardini, *Neue Jugend und Katholischer Geist*, Mainz, Gruenewald, 1921; *Kirche und Wirklichkeit*, ed. E. Michel, Jena, Diederichs, 1923; *Die Grossdeutsche Jugend Beilage zum Heiligen Feuer*, Paderborn, Jungherman; *Lotenrufe an die Katholische Studentenschaft*, Wuerzburg, Roll. Judaism and youth movement: *Sonderheft der juedischen Jugendbewegung, Die Tat*, Vol. XV, no. 5, Jena, Diederichs, 1923; *Der Bund, Kameraden*, Deutsch-juedischer Wanderbund, Frankfurt. Socialism and youth movement: C. Bondy, *Die proletarische Jugendbewegung*, Lauenburg, Saal, 1922; K. Korn, *Die Arbeiterjugendbewegung*, Vol. I & II, Ber-

lin, Arbeiterjugendverlag, 1922-1923; M. Westfal, *Was wir wollen*, *ibid.*, 1922; K. Vogt, *Der Arbeiterjugendverein*, *ibid.*, 1943; J. Schult, *Die Schule der arbeitenden Jugend*, *ibid.*, 1922. G. Dehn, *Die religioese Gedankenwelt der proletarischen Jugend*, Berlin, Furcheverlag, 1924. Youth movement, roaming, and tutelages: *Der Wandersuehrer*, Hilchenbach, Verband fuer Deutsche Jugendherbergen, since 1927. Youth movement, school, and adult education: F. Klatt, *Die Wuerde der Gemeinschaft*, Berlin, Der weisse Ritter, 1922, *idem*, *Die geistige Wendung im Maschinenzeitalter*, Potsdam, Protte, 1930, *idem*, *Freizeitgestaltung*, Stuttgart, Silberberg, 1929; *idem*, *Das Gegenspiel*, Jena, Diederichs, 1925; G. Wyneken, *Schule und Jugendkultur*, *ibid.*, many editions, (a biased book). Settlements established by youth movement groups: G. Becker, *Die Siedelung der deutschen Jugendbewegung*, (Ph. D. Thesis, University of Cologne) Koeln 1929. Die Wegwarte, ed. E. Arnold, Leipzig E. Arnold, since 1924; *Die Arbeitsgemeinschaft des Bruderhofs*, Bruderhof bei Neuuhof, (n.d.). Bund entschiedener Schulreformer: *Entschiedene Schulreform*, Abhandlungsreihe, ed. P. Oestreich, Leipzig, Oldenburg, since 1919; *Die Lebensschule*, Ed. F. Hilker and others, Berlin, Schwetschke, since 1919; *Die neue Erziehung*, ed. P. Oestreich, Berlin, various publishing houses, since 1919; *Jugendnot*, ed. G. Danziger and S. Kawerau, Leipzig, Oldenburg, 1922; *Der Jugendhelfer*, ed. G. Danziger and P. Oestreich, Berlin, 1927; *Der neue Lehrer*, ed. P. Oestreich und O. Tacke, Osterwieck, Zickfeld, 1926; (in each of these publications of the Bund e. Sch. appear articles by P. Honigsheim). Youth movement and music: *idem*, "Music and Gesellschaft," *Kunst und Technik*, ed. R. Kestenbergs, Berlin, Volksverband der Bucherfreunde, 1930.

vity feeling. The youth movement realized it to some extent in the form of anti-urban escape and primitive life in the woods during holidays, week-ends, and vacations. Moreover, some groups founded settlements and lived there according to the ideology of the youth movement. The movement accepted directly or indirectly at least partly and for a time, influences coming from every one of the thirteen ideologies, mentioned above. In this way it became one of the most important meeting grounds for these ideologies. Moreover, its feeling and ideal did not disappear but rather was projected into many spheres of German life before and after World War I. An obvious example of this is the changes occurring within the field of education. Former members of youth movement groups did educational work in schools, people's universities, and institutions for adult education and social service. Among others the "Bund entschiedener Schulreformer" under the leadership of Paul Oestreich, propagated educational ideals and methods, largely originated out of the youth movement. Some of them were actually realized in schools or other educational institutions. Among them were the following: Non-authoritarian brotherly relations between teacher and child, mutual help among children, education based on the belief in the uniqueness of the soul of every pupil, (even of the juvenile delinquent and the seemingly feeble minded and unsocial individual) and collective amateur-music based on traditional folksongs

and dances. To a large extent viewpoints of the youth movement mentality have also been incorporated into other spheres of life through former members who entered the respective professions. Thus, the new youth has been an essential factor in the history of German culture and life. Especially it was one of the essential ways by which the peasant came to be glorified in the non-peasant world. But the youth movement is not the only channel through which that happened. For almost all of these anti-democratic, racial, cooperative, land rent, and natural life ideology groups were actually adherents of the gospel of the superiority of the German peasant. This ideology was transmitted to Nazism through the youth movement as well as through all these other channels.

The Nazi movement gained ascendancy through the convergence of many phenomena. It is not the task of this paper to enumerate all of them. One, however, must be mentioned. Hitler promised the youth and the peasants improvement in their socio-economic condition. For both groups he had an ideological justification and glorification. On one hand, he claimed to represent a realization of the youth movement feeling and to accept to a large extent its ideology. Hitler youth and similar Hitler groups even wore many characteristic articles of clothing and insignia of the youth movement. On the other, Nazism promised to give to the peasant economic improvement, as well as the rank and honor due him.

That was possible because National Socialism at the same time preached a peasant ideology proclaiming the peasant as the ideal German, even as the true nordic man. In this program the peasant is considered the ideal German due to the following characteristic qualities: He is: (1) not evolutionalistically but traditionalistically minded; (2) not optimistically minded but has a feeling for the tragic aspect of life; (3) not living in "Gesellschaft" but rather in "Gemeinschaft;" (4) not democratically minded but has feeling for the difference between himself, who is actually a rural aristocrat, and the masses in the city; (5) not internationally but nationalistically minded; (6) not the same in every German county (Gau), but different because he belongs to the various German "Staemme;" (7) not the member of a struggling class, but the representative of the "Bauernstand"; (8) not involved in an international intellectual culture, but has his own rural culture and rural education; (9) not the isolated individualistic producer of the city but the representative of the true German cooperative; (10) not regarding money but land as the background of individual and national life; (11) not living a luxurious but a primitive life; (12) not individualistically (selfishly) but collectively and brotherly minded; (13) not living an unnatural life but a life conforming to nature; (14) not living a complicated and artificial, but a simple life.

Accordingly, the Nazi concept of the ideal German peasant is certainly

not an original one, but rather a culmination of the fourteen elements enumerated. By doing so the Nazi concept sometimes combines theories of some authors (such as Nietzsche and Toennies) with other Hitlerian ideas, such as the subjection of the Slavic speaking peoples which are not at all conforming to, but rather radically opposed, to some basic ideas of the authors under consideration. With the exception of this tendency to use a writer for purposes which were originally not intended, the Nazi concept concerning the peasant is not even a new combination of old elements. Previously the "Rembrandtdeutsche" and the German youth movement had built up such syntheses. In the case of the Nazis there occurred what regularly happens in world history. Factors of ideological character certainly became efficacious, but not until a phenomenon of realistic character had been realized, i.e., not until the realistic factor and the idealistic factor had converged. In the case being considered the social situation of the middle class youth and the economic situation of the peasant were the realistic factors, making both youth and peasant able and willing to accept the idealistic factors and to work conforming to them, i.e., to accept and realize the Hitler program. On the other hand Nazism would not have been able to find so many adherents in so short a time and in so many districts, if the fourteen ideologies enumerated above had not prepared the way. Our investigation again shows that the Marxian theory

of economic determinism is an incomplete and, therefore, an incorrect one. On the contrary, our explanation is a new proof of the efficacy of the ideology on the development of and the

change within the social structure. The efficacy of the ideology is thus demonstrated by such a seemingly realistic and conservative phenomenon as German rural life.

Differential Fertility in Rural Texas

By Carl M. Rosenquist and Alvin H. Schafft

ABSTRACT

To discover causal factors in differential fertility, the fertility ratios for the rural farm population of Texas counties (1940) were compared with per capita income, tractor density, tenancy, education, age of child-bearing women, race, and urbanism. No significant correlations were found except in the case of tractor density and education, the first varying directly and the second inversely with fertility. Urbanism was observed to have a depressing effect upon the fertility of the nearby farm population.

RESUMEN

Para descubrir los factores que determinan los contrastes en la fertilidad, se hizo en 1940 un estudio comparado entre los promedios de la fertilidad en la población rural agrícola de Texas y el ingreso individual (per capita), el número de tractores, la posesión de tierras, la instrucción, la edad de mujeres con hijos, la raza y la urbanización de dicha población.

No se encontró correlación de valor alguno excepto en el número de tractores y en el grado de instrucción, variando el primero en forma directa y en forma inversa la segunda respecto a la fertilidad. Se observó que los efectos de urbanización son nocivo a la fertilidad en la población rural vecina.

It has been maintained that only half the members of the present generation of Americans will be represented by children in the next generation. If this contention is true, or approximately so, it is easy to see how the character of the population with respect to any social or biological trait could change profoundly in a comparatively short time. It may be assumed that some changes of this kind are in progress; they must be, inevitably, unless the people are all

alike, from class to class and from group to group, in all significant respects, both social and biological.

If, as some investigators claim, there are biological differences corresponding to the various socio-economic classes which make up the population, a continuation of the pattern of differential fertility now current may well lead to a deterioration of the race. Certainly there is nothing in the situation to guarantee that such deterioration will not occur.

But if there is uncertainty as to

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biological differences, no one can deny that social differences of great magnitude separate the various groups in society from each other. It follows that if these groups vary in fertility, the culture of the present will descend unequally to posterity. In a democratic society like ours, where something like equality of opportunity for all citizens is an accepted goal, such a goal can scarcely be attained if a large proportion of the children are born to parents who have low incomes and who live in communities where facilities for education and medical care are poor. Under such conditions, the early environment of the children of the next generation will be inferior to that of the average adult in the society into which they are born. The resulting problem is well worthy of our best efforts at finding a solution.

The study herein reported undertakes to add something to our knowledge through observations made upon differential fertility in the rural farm population of Texas counties. It is believed that the diversity of the farm population in Texas and the large number of counties (254) serve to make Texas an especially good field for a study of this kind. Most of the data used were taken from the Census of 1940.

The ratio of children under five years of age per 1,000 women aged 15 to 44¹ was calculated for each county and the resulting figure was utilized throughout in making com-

parisons with other factors. The factors selected for attention were: per capita income, tractor density, tenancy, educational attainment, age of women in the heavy child-bearing ages, race, and urbanism.

The first four factors are more or less related to economic status. This is certainly true of income and of the number of tractors per farm. It is probably true of education and possibly also of tenancy. Since one of the oldest observations of students of population is that fertility varies inversely with economic status,² it is of interest to discover if in Texas all these are related in the same way and in the same degree to the rate of production.

An average per capita farm income for 1939 was calculated from the 1940 Census by dividing the "total value of farm products sold, traded, or used" by the total farm population of the county. The index so obtained seemed to be a more accurate statement of income than the per farm capita income figure. It agrees closely with the average per capita farm income figure. It agrees as worked out by the Bureau of Business Research of the University of Texas.³

The application of the method of rank correlation to fertility and per capita farm income yielded a coefficient of $-.082$, thereby showing that the usual relationship apparently is

¹ Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940.

² Adam Smith, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, (8th ed.; London: 1796) I, pp. 119-120.

³ Unpublished data supplied by F. A. Buechel.

not found among Texas farmers. The result, while uncommon, is not unprecedented. Similar findings have been reported from Nebraska and Iowa.⁴

The industrial revolution has changed farming quite as profoundly as it has changed urban industry, though perhaps in a different way. It has not, to be sure, transferred the actual cultivation of the soil to the city, though it has taken away many potential farmers, who now devote themselves to the urban occupations of producing agricultural implements and the materials required in their operation. More significantly, urban ways of life have gone to the farm, where they are destined to have effects greater than any yet observed. It is obvious, for example, that the mechanization of farming in terms of its ultimate possibilities has only just begun. One of the more recently introduced devices in this field is the tractor, and since it signals a radical change in the source of farm power and since the Census gives figures for the number of tractors by counties, it is used in this study as a measure of mechanization. The ownership of a tractor is indicative of relatively high purchasing power, hence its possession is also a measure of income. The index of tractor density was derived by dividing the number of tractors in each county by the number of farms.

Correlating this figure with fertility yields a Pearsonian coefficient

of $.212 \pm .034$. Though not high, the relationship is significant and of some interest, especially since it differs from the expected result. Taeuber, for example, reports results exactly the opposite to those found here,⁵ and T. Lynn Smith suggests that "the factory system of agriculture may depress the birth rate."⁶ Perhaps the use of tractors is not equivalent to the factory system, but if it is, it apparently is not having the anticipated effect in Texas.

The appearance of tenancy in the settled farm communities of America has alarmed most of the investigators who have written on the subject. It should, therefore, give cause for rejoicing that the proportion of Texas farms operated by tenants declined from 60.9 per cent in 1930 to 48.9 per cent in 1940.⁷ However, the indications are that the change results from a modern enclosure movement through which the small farms are consolidated into larger ones, mechanized, and then operated by owners instead of by tenants. The change may mean that many former tenants have been demoted to the status of farm laborers. Yet it is quite possible that they are no worse off economically than they were before the change.

It should be noted, furthermore, that tenants, even though classed together in the Census tabulations, are

⁵ Conrad Taeuber, "Agriculture and Current Population Trends," *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, LXXX (February, 1939), 477-489.

⁶ T. Lynn Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 141.

⁷ *Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930; Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940.*

⁴ T. Lynn Smith, *The Sociology of Rural Life* (New York: 1940) p. 145.

not all alike. Certainly they are not all poor, or at least not all equally poor. The owner of a small, worn-out farm, lacking the capital to work it properly, may be and often is much lower in the income scale than the tenant who rents a large, well-improved farm and possesses the necessary equipment and skill to operate it at full efficiency.⁸ Perhaps differences of this kind are of sufficient frequency in Texas to mask the usual relationship between tenancy rates and fertility.

A tenancy index was calculated by dividing the total number of share tenants and croppers in each county by the total number of farm operators, as given in the 1940 Census. Cash tenants and share-cash tenants were omitted on the ground that they represent in general a higher income group than share tenants and croppers. Their inclusion, it was believed, might obscure the result of the comparisons. The Pearsonian coefficient for the relationship between tenancy and the fertility ratio was found to be .048, a figure so low as to indicate strongly that no correlation exists between the two factors.

The Sixteenth Census gives the median number of years of school completed by counties for the rural farm population of Texas. Using this figure as an index, the relationship between educational achievement and fertility was measured with a result-

ing Pearsonian coefficient of $-.485$.⁹ This figure is high enough to indicate that Texas counties with well-educated farm populations tend to have low fertility ratios.

In manifesting this relationship Texas agrees with other areas studied with respect to the effect of education upon the birth rate.¹⁰ However, it was observed that in the counties lying along the western border there is found the highest educational level of the state, and at the same time a high fertility ratio. None of the facts at hand supply an explanation of this condition. Obviously, if these counties were omitted the coefficient of correlation would be much higher.

Since only low correlations or none at all were found between fertility and various socio-economic factors, it appeared possible that biological factors might be of some importance. One such factor investigated was the relation of fertility to the proportion of women in the heavy child-bearing age range. In 1940 the age group of women with the highest birth rate was the group aged 20 to 24.¹¹ The next highest group was aged 25 to 29. Since the women in the latter group were in the highest birth-rate division from 1935 to 1940, the period during which the children under five

⁹ Crane, Loving and Winkler counties were omitted, because their populations were too small to yield reliable medians.

¹⁰ See, for example, Clyde V. Kiser, "Variations in Birth Rates According to Occupational Status, Family Income, and Educational Attainment," *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, XVI (January, 1938), 39-56.

¹¹ *Vital Statistics of the United States, Supplement, 1939-1940*, Part III, Table IV.

⁸ C. A. Wiley, "Tenure Problems and Research Needs in the South," *Journal of Farm Economics*, XIX (February, 1937), 128 ff.

in 1940 were born, the age group, 25 to 29, was selected for the comparison. An index was constructed by dividing the total number of women aged 25 to 29 for each county by the total number of women aged 15 to 44 in the county.¹² A coefficient of correlation was then calculated between this index and the fertility ratio. No correlation ($r = .086$) was found. When the counties were weighted according to the size of population for each county, there was a slight increase ($r = .118$). Although the weighting procedure raised the coefficient noticeably, it still remains too small to justify the probability that the differences in fertility in the farm population of Texas counties can be to any appreciable degree accounted for by differences in the age distribution of the women in the child-bearing ages.

Texas has three well-defined racial groups within her borders, namely, the Mexicans, the Negroes and the whites. These groups differ from each other in various socio-economic respects as well as in biological characteristics, consequently it cannot be assumed that differences in reproductivity among them are necessarily attributable to racial factors. Furthermore, it is known that underenumeration of children and underregistration of births is more frequent among the non-whites than among the whites. Yet it is probably significant that the 1940 crude birth rate of the Negroes was higher than

that of the whites in only 62 of the 254 counties in Texas. In the other 192 counties the birth rate of the whites was equal to or greater than that of the Negroes.¹³ In view of the underregistration of Negro births, it is probable that the Negro birth rate is somewhat higher than this comparison indicates, but it is not likely that the Negroes of Texas have a much higher rate than the whites.

Unfortunately for our purposes, the "whites," as the term is used in the vital statistics reports, includes the Mexicans. Unpublished figures¹⁴ show heavy concentrations of Mexican births in about 70 counties forming a wide belt along the Rio Grande. These counties in general also show higher than average birth rates, thus strongly suggesting that the Mexican birth rate is higher than that of the whites.

Browder's study¹⁵ supports the observations presented above. Using school census returns for a well-distributed sample of 67 Texas counties, Browder estimated the average size family by racial groups. These estimates took account only of children between the ages of six and seventeen. The relations are indicated by the following statement:

"68 per cent of the children were white, as against 72 per cent of the families; 17 per cent of the

¹² *Vital Statistics of the United States: 1940, Part II, Table II.*

¹⁴ From the Bureau of Vital Statistics, Texas State Department of Health, Austin, Texas.

¹⁵ Walter G. Browder, *The Pattern of Internal Mobility in Texas, A Subregional Analysis*, (Austin, Texas: 1944).

¹³ Ten counties were excluded because they had fewer than 100 women in the age group 15 to 44.

children were Mexicans compared with 14 per cent of the families; and the percentages of children and families who were Negro were just about the same."¹⁶

Unfortunately these observations lack finality, but they suggest that differences associated with race may account for some part of the differential fertility found in the farm population of Texas.

The fertility of women in cities having been repeatedly shown to be lower than that of rural women, it becomes of interest to ascertain whether the presence of urban centers has a depressing effect upon the fertility of the nearby rural population. Two approaches to the problem were used. In the first, the fertility ratios of the rural farm populations of the eleven counties in Texas containing cities of over 50,000 in 1940 were compared with the median of all counties. It was found that in only three counties of the eleven was the fertility equal to or above the median.

In the second approach, a list was made of all counties adjoining any one of eight counties, each of which contains an urban center. The eight counties were selected by choosing cities from different parts of the state, all at some distance from each other. Dallas and Fort Worth, occupying adjoining counties, were treated as a unit, so that, in effect, only seven

centers were considered. Of the 51 counties bordering on counties containing cities, 33 had fertility ratios lower than the state median. This indicates a tendency of the urban center to depress the birth rate in nearby areas. In four of the seven cases, the county with the urban center may be likened to a depression in a basin. For Lubbock and Dallas-Tarrant the central counties without exception have lower fertility ratios than the surrounding counties. For Harris county, the single exception, Galveston county, is explained by the presence of the city of Galveston. Bexar county has a fertility ratio lower than four of the surrounding counties.

The remaining three counties do not follow the same pattern. Tom Green county containing the city of San Angelo (1940 population, 25,802) is almost entirely surrounded by counties having lower fertility ratios. In the case of McLennan and Travis counties, about half the surrounding counties have higher fertility ratios than the central county. The conclusion suggested is that the presence of an urban center has a tendency to depress the fertility ratio both in its own farm population and in those of adjoining counties. This result is in agreement with that of other studies, and suggests the pattern of distribution through which urban forms of behavior spread from city to farm.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

Comparison of the Educational Attainments of Louisiana Rural and Urban Populations *

By Marion B. Smith†

ABSTRACT

The Louisiana population is predominantly rural and has the third largest proportion of Negroes of any state in the United States.

The rural population comprises almost two-thirds of the children of school age in the state.

The educational level of the adult urban population, measured in terms of school advancement, is considerably higher than that of the rural adults.

A larger proportion of the rural population of school age is not enrolled in school than is true of the urban children of school age. Also the rural children enter school at a more advanced age and leave school at a younger age than is characteristic of the urban population.

Urban children tend to succeed in school better than rural children. There is more retardation in rural than urban schools.

The non-white is uniformly below the educational level of the white population of the same age, sex and residential group. The urban non-white adults, however, have an average higher educational level than that of the rural-farm white adults.

RESUMEN

La población de Louisiana es predominantemente rural y tiene la tercera proporción de negros más grande de ningún estado de los Estados Unidos.

La población rural comprende casi dos terceras partes de los niños de edad escolar en el estado.

El nivel educacional de la población urbana adulta medido en términos de avance escolar es mucho más alto que el de los adultos rurales.

De la población rural de edad escolar la que no está registrada en la escuela es mayor que la de los niños urbanos de edad escolar. Además los niños rurales entran en la escuela a una edad más avanzada y la dejan a una edad más temprana que entre la población urbana.

Los niños urbanos parecen tener más éxito en la escuela que los rurales. Hay más retraso en las escuelas rurales. Hay mucho más retardamiento en las escuelas rurales que en las urbanas. La población de color está uniformemente a un nivel educacional inferior al de la población blanca de la misma edad, sexo, y grupo residencial. Los adultos urbanos de color, sin embargo, tienen un nivel educacional promedio más alto que el de los adultos rurales blancos.

The rural population of the United States is the group which produces, not only the food and raw materials for the nation's tables and factories, but also the people who consume the food, inhabit the cities, man and

operate the factories and attend the schools. In short, the rural population produces a surplus of children, many of whom, when they reach maturity migrate to the urban centers.

In a speech before the White House Conference on Rural Education in 1944, President Franklin D. Roosevelt stated, "In three generations 80 per cent of the total population will be direct descendants of those now

* This article may be identified as Paper number 5, Journal Series, Institute of Population Research, Louisiana State University.

† Louisiana State University.

living on farms in the United States. Thus many of those who will be the leaders and citizens of our nation will be given their understanding and appreciation of democracy in educational institutions in rural areas." Since a considerable portion of the urban population receives its early training in rural communities and in the schools provided by the rural communities, the education of rural children and young people should be of interest to the urban population as well as to the rural inhabitants.

This study compares the rural and the urban children, young people and adults of Louisiana on the basis of their educational attainments as measured in terms of school attendance and school progress. The data are gathered from the *Sixteenth Census of the United States* (1940).

Analysis of Louisiana Population

Louisiana, like nearly all the southern states, is predominately rural having 58.5 per cent of her

population classified as rural-nonfarm and rural-farm. Since the rural populations generally produce the majority of the children of a state, it is to be expected that the average age of the population of a predominantly rural state would be below that of the predominantly urban nation as a whole. The average age of the Louisiana population is 25.5 years whereas that of the United States is 29.0 years. It is also to be expected that the average age of the rural population of Louisiana would be younger than that of the urban population of the state. That the rural population of Louisiana is in the younger age groups to a greater extent than is the urban population can be seen by an examination of Table I. The rural population of Louisiana of school age, five through 19 years, comprises 65.2 per cent of all Louisiana children of that age group whereas the urban population has only 34.8 per cent of the total number of school age chil-

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF THE LOUISIANA POPULATION BY RACE, RESIDENCE AND AGE, 1940*

| | All Ages | | Age 5-19 | | | Age 20 and Over | | |
|----------------|-----------|---------|----------|---------|------------------|-----------------|---------|------------------|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Percent of Total | Number | Percent | Percent of Total |
| Total | 2,363,880 | 100 | 712,210 | 30.0 | | 1,421,043 | 60.1 | |
| White | 1,511,739 | 64.0 | 444,220 | 62.4 | 62.5 | 928,633 | 65.3 | 65.3 |
| Non-white | 852,141 | 36.0 | 267,990 | 37.6 | 37.5 | 492,410 | 34.7 | 34.7 |
| Urban | 980,439 | 41.5 | 247,501 | 34.8 | 34.8 | 660,932 | 46.5 | 46.5 |
| White | 665,464 | 67.9 | 163,576 | 66.1 | 23.0 | 454,962 | 68.8 | 32.0 |
| Non-white | 314,975 | 32.1 | 83,925 | 33.9 | 11.8 | 205,970 | 31.2 | 14.5 |
| Rural Non-farm | 533,059 | 22.5 | 162,250 | 22.8 | 22.8 | 313,306 | 22.0 | 22.0 |
| White | 376,829 | 70.7 | 115,970 | 71.5 | 16.3 | 220,134 | 70.3 | 15.5 |
| Non-white | 156,230 | 29.3 | 46,280 | 28.5 | 6.4 | 93,172 | 29.7 | 6.6 |
| Rural Farm | 850,382 | 36.0 | 302,459 | 42.4 | 42.4 | 446,805 | 31.5 | 31.5 |
| White | 469,446 | 55.2 | 164,674 | 54.4 | 23.1 | 253,537 | 56.7 | 17.8 |
| Non-white | 380,936 | 44.8 | 137,785 | 45.6 | 19.3 | 193,268 | 43.3 | 13.6 |

* *Sixteenth Census of the United States—(1940)*, Volume II, Part 3, Kansas-Michigan, Table 7, p. 335

dren. It may be pointed out that the school age group represents 33.6 per cent of the total rural population of Louisiana whereas the same age group represents but 25.2 per cent of the urban population. In other words the proportion of children of school age in the total population is one-third higher among rural than among urban residents.

When one considers the adult population, 20 years of age and above, he finds that the urban dwellers with 41.5 per cent of the total state population contains 46.5 per cent of those above 20 years of age, whereas the rural population with 58.5 per cent of all the residents of Louisiana has only 53.5 per cent of the adults. In other words the proportion of adults within the urban group is 22.8 per cent, almost one-fourth, higher than that in the rural population.

As one would expect from the population characteristics given above, differential fertility, from the residential standpoint, is marked in Louisiana.¹ The urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm populations have fertility ratios of 258, 430, and 546 respectively. The rural-farm population is thus bearing more than twice as many children as the urban group in proportion to the total number of women ages 15 through 45 years in the residence group.

The Louisiana population is charac-

terized by a very large proportion of its members being of the Negro race. In fact Louisiana with 35.9 per cent of its population Negro is third in the Nation in its proportion of Negroes. It is exceeded only by South Carolina with 42.9 per cent and Mississippi with 49.2 per cent Negro. The Negroes of Louisiana are predominantly rural, having 44.7, 18.3, and 37.0 per cent of their numbers classed as rural-farm, rural-nonfarm, and urban respectively.

Educational Attainment of Adult Population

When one analyzes the educational level reached by the adult population, Table II, he notices that in 1940 over 21.1 per cent of the white urban population 20 years of age and over have completed four years of high school whereas only 7.9 per cent of the white rural-farm inhabitants have attained that educational level. Almost three times as large a proportion of the urban-white as of the rural-white adults have completed four years of high school training. On the other hand 13.1 per cent of the white adult rural-farm population have not completed any grade as compared with only 3.4 per cent of the corresponding urban group. The rural-farm white population has almost four times as high a percentage of its members without any school training as has the urban dwellers.

Among the colored adult population the proportion of urban dwellers who have completed four years of high school is more than five times that of

¹J. Allan Beegle and T. Lynn Smith, "Differential Fertility in Louisiana," *Louisiana Bulletin No. 403*, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, June 1946.

TABLE II
LOUISIANA POPULATION TWENTY YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, NUMBER OF SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED
BY RESIDENCE, RACE, AND SEX.*

| | None | Elementary School Years | | | | | | | High School Years | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 6986 | 1003 | 2400 | 5826 | 10326 | 12363 | 14931 | 19840 | 11620 | 14027 | 9340 | 39497 |
| Percent | 3.2 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 2.7 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 6.9 | 9.2 | 5.4 | 6.5 | 4.3 | 18.2 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 8470 | 906 | 2164 | 5374 | 9481 | 13070 | 16149 | 20362 | 13197 | 15303 | 10778 | 56395 |
| Percent | 3.6 | 0.4 | 0.9 | 2.3 | 4.0 | 5.5 | 6.8 | 8.5 | 5.5 | 6.4 | 4.5 | 23.6 |
| Total | 15456 | 1909 | 4564 | 11200 | 19807 | 25433 | 31080 | 40202 | 24817 | 29330 | 20118 | 95892 |
| Percent | 3.4 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 2.5 | 4.4 | 5.6 | 6.8 | 8.8 | 5.5 | 6.4 | 4.4 | 21.1 |
| Rural Non-Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 10290 | 1613 | 2853 | 5453 | 7530 | 8333 | 8425 | 12430 | 7646 | 7086 | 5515 | 14618 |
| Percent | 9.2 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 4.9 | 6.7 | 7.5 | 7.6 | 11.1 | 6.9 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 13.1 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 10069 | 1218 | 2077 | 4195 | 6098 | 7375 | 8027 | 10972 | 7560 | 7202 | 5921 | 18030 |
| Percent | 9.3 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 3.9 | 5.6 | 6.8 | 7.4 | 10.1 | 7.0 | 6.6 | 5.5 | 16.6 |
| Total | 20359 | 2831 | 4930 | 9648 | 13628 | 15708 | 16452 | 23402 | 15206 | 14288 | 11436 | 32648 |
| Percent | 9.2 | 1.3 | 2.2 | 4.4 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 7.5 | 10.6 | 6.9 | 6.5 | 5.2 | 14.8 |
| Rural Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 17869 | 3118 | 5425 | 9248 | 14071 | 13588 | 13685 | 16762 | 8764 | 6263 | 4232 | 8959 |
| Percent | 13.3 | 2.3 | 4.0 | 6.9 | 10.4 | 10.1 | 10.2 | 12.3 | 6.5 | 4.6 | 3.1 | 6.6 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 15422 | 1814 | 3417 | 6207 | 9618 | 11090 | 11919 | 14629 | 8548 | 7054 | 4949 | 11025 |
| Percent | 13.0 | 1.5 | 2.9 | 5.2 | 8.1 | 9.3 | 10.0 | 12.3 | 7.2 | 5.9 | 4.2 | 9.3 |
| Total | 33291 | 4932 | 8842 | 15455 | 23689 | 24673 | 25604 | 31391 | 17312 | 13317 | 9181 | 19984 |
| Percent | 13.1 | 1.9 | 3.5 | 6.1 | 9.3 | 9.7 | 9.9 | 12.4 | 6.8 | 5.3 | 3.6 | 7.9 |

* Sixteenth Census of the United States, Vol. IV, Part 2, Alabama-Louisiana, Table 19, p. 929.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS

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TABLE II—Continued
LOUISIANA POPULATION TWENTY YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, NUMBER OF SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED
BY RESIDENCE, RACE, AND SEX.*

| | None | Elementary School Years | | | | | | | High School Years | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|------|------|------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Urban. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 11135 | 2660 | 6231 | 10514 | 12408 | 11050 | 10145 | 8476 | 2931 | 2304 | 1156 | 2804 |
| Percent | 12.1 | 2.9 | 6.8 | 11.4 | 13.4 | 12.0 | 11.0 | 9.2 | 3.2 | 2.5 | 1.3 | 3.0 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 12705 | 2759 | 6268 | 10816 | 13844 | 13403 | 13304 | 11427 | 4376 | 3431 | 1944 | 5059 |
| Percent | 11.2 | 2.4 | 5.5 | 9.5 | 12.2 | 11.8 | 11.7 | 10.1 | 3.9 | 3.0 | 1.7 | 4.5 |
| Total | 23840 | 5419 | 12499 | 21330 | 26247 | 24453 | 23449 | 19933 | 7307 | 5735 | 3100 | 7863 |
| Percent | 11.6 | 2.6 | 6.1 | 10.4 | 12.7 | 11.9 | 11.4 | 9.7 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 1.5 | 3.8 |
| Rural Non-Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 10295 | 2622 | 4380 | 6305 | 6079 | 4673 | 3392 | 2894 | 936 | 598 | 305 | 509 |
| Percent | 22.8 | 5.8 | 9.7 | 14.0 | 13.5 | 10.4 | 7.5 | 6.4 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 1.1 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 10001 | 2293 | 3665 | 5308 | 6098 | 5659 | 4694 | 3917 | 1448 | 919 | 571 | 961 |
| Percent | 20.8 | 4.8 | 7.6 | 11.0 | 12.7 | 11.8 | 9.8 | 8.1 | 3.0 | 1.9 | 1.2 | 2.0 |
| Total | 20296 | 4915 | 8045 | 11613 | 12177 | 10332 | 8086 | 6811 | 2384 | 1517 | 876 | 1470 |
| Percent | 21.8 | 5.3 | 8.6 | 12.5 | 13.1 | 11.1 | 8.7 | 7.3 | 2.6 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 1.6 |
| Rural Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 28204 | 7979 | 12178 | 14103 | 13434 | 8441 | 5985 | 4236 | 1092 | 656 | 365 | 502 |
| Percent | 28.3 | 8.0 | 12.2 | 14.2 | 13.5 | 8.5 | 6.0 | 4.3 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.5 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 22066 | 5705 | 9014 | 11735 | 12926 | 10506 | 8372 | 6176 | 1722 | 1037 | 545 | 889 |
| Percent | 23.6 | 6.1 | 9.6 | 12.5 | 13.8 | 11.2 | 8.9 | 6.6 | 1.8 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.9 |
| Total | 50270 | 13684 | 21192 | 25838 | 26360 | 18947 | 14357 | 10412 | 2814 | 1693 | 910 | 1391 |
| Percent | 26.0 | 7.1 | 11.0 | 13.4 | 13.6 | 9.8 | 7.4 | 5.4 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.7 |

* Sixteenth Census of the United States, Vol. IV, Part 2, Alabama-Louisiana, Table 19, p. 929.

the rural-farm group, (3.8 per cent compared with 0.7 per cent). The proportion of rural-farm non-white (colored) adults who have completed no formal schooling is more than double that of the urban population (26.0 per cent compared with 11.6 per cent).

Comparison of the Rural and Urban Populations of School Age on the Basis of School Attendance

School advancement is dependent upon school attendance. A study of the percentage of those of school age who are not enrolled in school, Table III, reveals that in 1940 a much higher proportion of the rural population is not enrolled in any school

than is true of the urban dwellers. Among the rural-farm families the proportion of white boys from six through 17 years of age who are not enrolled in school is from 41.9 to 177.4 per cent higher than that of the urban boys of the same age and race. The same general pattern holds true for the white girls and for the colored boys and girls.

It may also be pointed out that the rural children enter school at a more advanced age and they leave at a younger age than is characteristic of the urban children. At the age of six years around one-fourth of the urban white and one-third of the urban colored children, are not enrolled in school whereas among the rural chil-

TABLE III
LOUISIANA POPULATION OF SCHOOL AGE NOT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL BY
RACE, AGE, SEX AND RESIDENCE.*

| White | Urban | | Rural Non-farm | | Rural Farm | |
|-----------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|------------|-------|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 6—Number | 1212 | 1063 | 1951 | 1778 | 2961 | 2602 |
| Percent | 28.0 | 25.0 | 51.0 | 48.4 | 57.4 | 51.7 |
| 7—Number | 221 | 167 | 288 | 237 | 611 | 365 |
| Percent | 4.9 | 3.9 | 7.7 | 6.5 | 11.6 | 7.3 |
| 8—Number | 144 | 124 | 212 | 169 | 301 | 213 |
| Percent | 2.9 | 2.5 | 5.2 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 3.9 |
| 9—Number | 121 | 98 | 153 | 152 | 210 | 168 |
| Percent | 2.4 | 2.0 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.2 |
| 10—Number | 123 | 127 | 148 | 148 | 249 | 169 |
| Percent | 2.4 | 2.4 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 3.1 |
| 11—Number | 128 | 117 | 141 | 128 | 231 | 167 |
| Percent | 2.4 | 2.2 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.2 | 3.2 |
| 12—Number | 154 | 127 | 209 | 160 | 337 | 220 |
| Percent | 2.7 | 2.3 | 5.0 | 3.9 | 5.5 | 3.8 |
| 13—Number | 177 | 187 | 265 | 243 | 534 | 388 |
| Percent | 3.1 | 3.2 | 6.3 | 6.1 | 8.6 | 6.7 |
| 14—Number | 311 | 327 | 433 | 471 | 874 | 730 |
| Percent | 5.4 | 5.7 | 11.0 | 12.2 | 14.8 | 12.8 |
| 15—Number | 627 | 622 | 651 | 735 | 1446 | 1158 |
| Percent | 10.8 | 10.6 | 17.2 | 19.5 | 25.7 | 21.8 |
| 16—Number | 1309 | 1741 | 978 | 1123 | 2186 | 1886 |
| Percent | 22.0 | 25.0 | 26.8 | 29.1 | 38.0 | 33.7 |
| 17—Number | 2338 | 2570 | 1635 | 1737 | 3159 | 2630 |
| Percent | 38.9 | 40.6 | 45.3 | 48.0 | 55.2 | 52.0 |

* *Sixteenth Census of the United States—(1940) Vol. IV, Part 2, Alabama-Louisiana, Table 18, p. 918*

TABLE III—Continued

LOUISIANA POPULATION OF SCHOOL AGE NOT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL BY
RACE, AGE, SEX AND RESIDENCE.*

| Age | Non-White | Urban | | Rural Non-farm | | Rural Farm | |
|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|------------|-------|
| | | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| 6—Number | | 846 | 767 | 710 | 648 | 2716 | 2624 |
| Percent | | 33.2 | 30.0 | 44.7 | 39.1 | 55.5 | 51.6 |
| 7—Number | | 307 | 274 | 304 | 273 | 1286 | 1138 |
| Percent | | 12.0 | 10.4 | 19.2 | 16.4 | 27.1 | 23.8 |
| 8—Number | | 208 | 157 | 199 | 188 | 992 | 859 |
| Percent | | 8.0 | 5.8 | 12.1 | 11.8 | 20.1 | 17.6 |
| 9—Number | | 135 | 125 | 153 | 137 | 710 | 642 |
| Percent | | 5.4 | 4.7 | 10.3 | 9.5 | 15.9 | 14.7 |
| 10—Number | | 142 | 124 | 159 | 130 | 771 | 660 |
| Percent | | 5.2 | 4.4 | 9.6 | 8.3 | 15.3 | 13.7 |
| 11—Number | | 113 | 115 | 141 | 120 | 589 | 549 |
| Percent | | 4.5 | 4.4 | 9.9 | 8.2 | 14.5 | 13.6 |
| 12—Number | | 172 | 154 | 158 | 134 | 835 | 653 |
| Percent | | 5.9 | 5.1 | 10.1 | 8.0 | 16.5 | 13.8 |
| 13—Number | | 203 | 239 | 195 | 179 | 953 | 768 |
| Percent | | 7.1 | 7.8 | 12.8 | 11.3 | 18.7 | 15.4 |
| 14—Number | | 373 | 347 | 239 | 287 | 1165 | 916 |
| Percent | | 13.2 | 11.2 | 17.0 | 17.3 | 25.2 | 20.3 |
| 15—Number | | 644 | 726 | 395 | 474 | 1624 | 1353 |
| Percent | | 24.1 | 23.1 | 28.6 | 31.4 | 37.6 | 31.2 |
| 16—Number | | 1178 | 1175 | 694 | 768 | 2352 | 2197 |
| Percent | | 42.3 | 36.9 | 49.7 | 46.6 | 53.2 | 47.9 |
| 17—Number | | 1672 | 1794 | 934 | 984 | 3153 | 2604 |
| Percent | | 62.0 | 57.0 | 67.2 | 65.6 | 72.6 | 64.7 |

* *Sixteenth Census of the United States—(1940) Vol. IV, Part 2, Alabama-Louisiana, Table 18, p. 918*

dren, both rural-nonfarm and rural-farm of both races, about half of the children of that age level are not attending school. At the age of 15 years about one in 10 of the white urban children as compared with one in six of the rural-nonfarm and almost one in four of the rural-farm young people are out of school. Among the colored people the proportions of children who are not enrolled in school are about one in four for the urban, almost one in three for the rural-nonfarm and more than one in three for the rural-farm population 15 years of age.

Since a considerable number of Louisiana children of school age are

not enrolled in school it is interesting to note the median grade completed by the boys and girls at different age levels before they dropped out of school and to compare the urban and rural groups on that basis (Table IV). Not only has a larger percentage of rural people of school age left school than is true of the urban group but the median grade completed by these individuals is uniformly lower than for the corresponding urban population. At the age of 13 years, for example, the median grade completed by the urban white children before dropping out of school was 4.5 for the boys and 5.1 for the girls, whereas for the rural-farm white

TABLE IV
 MEDIAN YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY PERSONS 10 TO 20 YEARS OF AGE NOT IN SCHOOL AND OF ADULTS 20 YEARS OF AGE
 AND OVER, BY SEX, RACE, URBAN, RURAL NON-FARM, AND RURAL FARM.*

| | 10 years old | 11 years old | 12 years old | 13 years old | 14 years old | 15 years old | 16 years old | 17 years old | 18 years old | 19 years old | 20 years old | 20 years and above |
|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>White</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 2.8 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 5.3 | 6.2 | 6.8 | 7.5 | 8.2 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 8.2 |
| Female | 3.4 | 4.1 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 7.5 | 8.6 | 9.8 | 10.6 | 10.4 | 8.3 |
| Rural Non-Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 4.1 | 4.8 | 5.4 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 6.6 |
| Female | 1.8 | 2.4 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 8.5 | 8.2 | 7.1 |
| Rural Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 4.7 |
| Female | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 4.6 | 5.3 | 5.8 | 6.4 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 6.6 | 5.3 |
| <i>Non-White</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 2.4 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.6 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 6.4 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 5.3 |
| Female | 2.4 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 6.7 | 7.3 | 7.7 | 7.9 | 7.7 | 5.8 |
| Rural Non-Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 3.8 |
| Female | 0.0 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 6.2 | 4.4 |
| Rural Farm | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 3.1 |
| Female | 1.4 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 3.7 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 3.8 |

* *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population, Vol. IV, Part 2, Alabama-Louisiana, Tables 22 and 23, pp. 338-339.*

boys and girls it was 2.9 and 3.5 respectively. Among the colored children 13 years of age the median grade completed was 3.8 and 4.6 for the urban boys and girls and 2.3 and 2.8 for the rural-farm boys and girls respectively.

Comparison of the School Progress of Rural and Urban Populations of School Age

A study of available data on the school progress of Louisiana children, Table V, indicates that urban boys and girls are more successful in school than rural children of the same age, sex, and race. A child at the age of 11 years, who has attended school regularly and completed a school grade each year, should have completed the fifth grade. One notices, however, that while 56.6 per cent of the urban white boys made the expected rate of school advancement, only 36.0 per cent of the rural-farm white boys have similarly succeeded. In other words the proportion of urban white boys aged 11 who are at the expected educational level or above is 57.2 per cent higher than that of the white rural-farm boys of the same age. Among the urban and rural-farm colored boys of 11 years of age the differences are even greater. The proportion of urban colored boys, who have successfully completed the fifth grade, is over two times (220.3 per cent) higher than that of the corresponding rural-farm boys.

Students who do not succeed in school—do not make the expected rate of school advancement—soon reach a

point where they are retarded. A child of eight years of age who has not completed the first grade is regarded as retarded one grade; children 10 years of age who have not completed the third grade, pupils 13 years of age who have not completed the sixth grade, those 17 years of age who have not passed the third year of high school, and other students of corresponding ages and grades are regarded as retarded one or more grades.

An examination of Table VI which shows the percentage of retardation of boys and girls of urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm populations by age and race reveals that the rural young people are consistently more retarded for their age than is true of the urban group. For example the rural-farm white boys of 12 years of age have a proportion of retardation about 45 per cent higher than that of the urban boys of the same race and age. Likewise the rural-farm colored boys of 12 years of age have a rate of retardation 32.5 per cent above that of the urban group of the same race, sex, and age. Although the rate of retardation is consistently lower among the girls of all population groups, the differential rate between the urban and the rural school children is as high or higher for the girls than for the boys. The rural-farm girls of both races have a proportion of retardation of more than 40 per cent above that of the urban girls.

When a person considers the matter of school retardation in relation to the age of entrance into school he

TABLE V
COMPARISON OF SCHOOL PROGRESS OF LOUISIANA CHILDREN BY RACE, AGE, SEX, AND RESIDENCE.*

| Age | Grade Completed | Urban | | Rural Non-farm | | Rural Farm | |
|--------------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| | | Percent Boys | Percent Girls | Percent Boys | Percent Girls | Percent Boys | Percent Girls |
| White Children | | | | | | | |
| 7 | First | 77.1 | 81.1 | 72.4 | 76.8 | 73.8 | 76.3 |
| 8 | Second | 63.5 | 70.3 | 55.6 | 62.9 | 56.5 | 64.9 |
| 9 | Third | 57.2 | 64.6 | 49.3 | 56.0 | 47.0 | 57.9 |
| 10 | Fourth | 52.2 | 60.1 | 41.8 | 50.8 | 40.3 | 50.6 |
| 11 | Fifth | 56.6 | 55.4 | 39.2 | 48.3 | 36.0 | 48.0 |
| 12 | Sixth | 43.4 | 53.5 | 36.0 | 44.1 | 31.1 | 44.1 |
| 13 | Seventh | 42.6 | 52.7 | 35.6 | 47.0 | 29.9 | 43.3 |
| Non-White Children | | | | | | | |
| 7 | First | 68.6 | 73.6 | 66.9 | 68.6 | 65.6 | 66.9 |
| 8 | Second | 43.1 | 53.7 | 33.4 | 41.8 | 27.8 | 33.7 |
| 9 | Third | 32.9 | 41.9 | 21.2 | 30.6 | 16.2 | 24.2 |
| 10 | Fourth | 23.7 | 35.1 | 14.8 | 23.1 | 9.9 | 16.8 |
| 11 | Fifth | 20.5 | 29.9 | 10.7 | 19.5 | 6.4 | 11.8 |
| 12 | Sixth | 14.0 | 24.5 | 8.2 | 14.1 | 4.8 | 8.7 |
| 13 | Seventh | 13.3 | 22.7 | 7.0 | 11.9 | 2.8 | 6.6 |

* *Sixteenth Census of the United States, (1900)*—Vol. IV, Part 2, Table 17, p. 906

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF RETARDATION, ONE OR MORE GRADES, OF LOUISIANA BOYS AND GIRLS WHO ARE ENROLLED IN SCHOOL BY AGE, SEX, RACE, AND RESIDENCE.*

| Age | Urban | | Rural Non-farm | | Rural Farm | |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|------------|-------|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| <i>White Children</i> | | | | | | |
| 8 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 6.6 | 4.8 | 6.0 | 4.1 |
| 9 | 11.0 | 7.5 | 14.1 | 10.5 | 16.1 | 9.5 |
| 10 | 16.7 | 11.0 | 23.4 | 16.8 | 25.8 | 16.1 |
| 11 | 21.7 | 15.1 | 28.9 | 19.7 | 32.0 | 20.2 |
| 12 | 27.6 | 18.7 | 36.8 | 25.5 | 39.9 | 26.6 |
| 13 | 31.6 | 21.9 | 38.6 | 27.2 | 42.3 | 29.7 |
| 16 | 41.4 | 29.9 | 47.8 | 33.3 | 55.8 | 41.5 |
| 17 | 40.5 | 29.4 | 49.0 | 35.7 | 59.7 | 45.8 |
| <i>Non-White Children</i> | | | | | | |
| 8 | 14.2 | 9.7 | 18.1 | 14.7 | 21.0 | 17.6 |
| 9 | 31.9 | 24.2 | 45.5 | 34.6 | 53.2 | 44.9 |
| 10 | 46.5 | 34.2 | 61.5 | 50.9 | 70.0 | 58.0 |
| 11 | 55.2 | 44.8 | 72.0 | 57.2 | 79.9 | 68.8 |
| 12 | 63.9 | 51.2 | 75.8 | 65.1 | 84.7 | 75.6 |
| 13 | 69.2 | 55.4 | 80.2 | 71.0 | 89.7 | 81.3 |
| 16 | 85.4 | 73.4 | 89.9 | 85.1 | 97.6 | 93.2 |
| 17 | 84.4 | 75.5 | 89.0 | 82.3 | 96.8 | 94.4 |

* Sixteenth Census of the United States, (1940)

is not surprised to note that the rural children are retarded to a greater extent than is true of the urban children. Many rural children enter school at an age which places them in the retarded group almost from the beginning of their school life.

Comparison of the Educational Level of the White and the Non-White Populations

Analysis of the statistical data presented above reveals that the urban adults and urban youths of school age of the white and the colored races have uniformly a higher level of educational attainment for their respective ages than have the rural-nonfarm or the rural-farm populations. One also notes that the white members have a consistently higher

level of school attainment than is characteristic of the colored of the same population group and age. It is interesting to cross the racial lines and to compare the educational level of the urban colored people with that of the rural white population of the same age level.

Among the adult population one notices that 11.6 per cent of the urban colored have not completed one grade of school and that 13.1 per cent of the rural-farm white adults are at that educational level. In other words, the proportion of the white rural-farm population which has not completed the first grade of school is about one-eighth (12.9 per cent) higher than that of the urban Negroes. On the other hand, the proportion of rural-farm white persons who have com-

pleted four years of high school is double that of the urban colored population. The median grade completed by urban colored men is proportionately 12.8 per cent higher than median grade completed by rural-farm white men 20 years of age and over and the median grade completed by urban colored women is about one-tenth higher (9.0 per cent) proportionately than that completed by rural-farm white women.

A comparison of the number of urban boys and girls of school age who are not enrolled in school with that of the rural-farm white population of the same sex and age shows that the urban colored children enter school at a younger age than do the rural-farm white children. At six years of age fewer than half of the white rural-farm children are enrolled in school, yet more than two-thirds of the urban colored children of that age are enrolled in school (Table III). One also notices that a higher percentage of rural-nonfarm and rural-farm colored children six years of age is enrolled in school than is characteristically true of the white group of the same residence divisions. At the age of 12 years the percentage of white rural-farm children who are not enrolled in school is slightly lower than that of the urban colored group of that age—boys 5.5 and 5.9, girls 3.8 and 5.1 respectively. At 15 years of age the colored population has a slightly lower proportion of its boys not enrolled in school than the white rural-farm population of the same sex and age has; the percentage of non-white urban girls who are out of

school is slightly higher than that of the white rural-farm girls. On the whole the differences between the percentages of the urban colored and the rural-farm white population of school age who are not attending school do not seem to be particularly significant except at the age of six years.

When one compares the school progress of the urban colored children with that of the white rural farm students of the same age he notices that the white rural-farm children have a consistently higher rate of school success (Table V). The difference in the percentages of urban colored and rural-farm white children who have successfully completed the expected grade of school for their ages increases with each year of age from six through 13 years. At seven years of age the proportion of white rural-farm children who have successfully passed the first grade of school is but slightly higher than that of the urban colored group of that age—(73.8 compared with 68.6 for the boys and 76.3 and 73.6% for the girls respectively). At the age of 13 years the proportion of white rural-farm children who have successfully passed the sixth grade is about double that of the urban colored population.

The colored children show a consistently higher rate of retardation of one or more grades at all ages than is to be found among the white children of any population group. The proportional difference in retardation between the urban colored children, who have the lowest rate of retarda-

tion for their race, and the rural-farm white children, who have the highest rate of retardation for their race, ranges from more than 100 per cent greater for the colored boys eight years of age than that of white boys of the same age to slightly more than 40 per cent greater for the boys of 17 years of age of the same races and population groups.

Conclusion

That the educational level of the urban adult population, measured in number of years of school attendance, is much higher than that of the rural inhabitants may be explained by the fact that urban children enter school at a younger age, attend more regularly, and make better school progress than do the rural children.

It is claimed by some that the better educated of the rural population migrate to the cities in greater number than do the persons with less school training. This assumption is supported by studies by Gist and Clark in Kansas between the years 1922-23 and 1935, by Gist, Pihlblad, and Gregory carried on in 1938 in Missouri, and by Paul H. Landis in 1942 in the State of Washington. The Kansas study indicated that a larger proportion of the boys and girls with high intelligence quotients migrated to urban centers than was true of those with the lower IQs. The Missouri study was based on grades earned in school by rural high school students attending school between the years 1920 and 1930. The students maintaining a high scholastic

index migrated to urban centers in disproportionately large numbers, whereas an unduly large proportion of those with low scholastic indexes remained in the rural localities.² The Washington study by Landis showed that both the rural young men and women who migrated to urban localities had more years of formal education than was characteristic of the rural young people who remained rural.³

It is likely, however, that the difference in the average educational level of the urban and rural adult members results from a combination of the greater educational progress of urban children, and selective migration from the rural areas.

The success of pupils in school may be an indication of the value the adult members of the families and the communities concerned place on the school progress of their children quite as much as the interest and ability of the students themselves.

The school progress of the students enrolled may also indicate something of the quality of the school work and the character of the organization of the schools. If the school program is unrelated to the life of the population or if it is removed from the interests of the community it is to be expected that the children attending such artificial and unresponsive institutions

² cf. Noel P. Gist and L. A. Halbert, *Urban Society* (2nd ed.; New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1945), pp. 281-284.

³ Paul H. Landis, "Educational Selectivity of Rural-Urban Migration and its Bearing on Wage and Occupational Adjustments," *Rural Sociology*, XI (September, 1946), 218-232.

would find little to inspire them to the academic efforts required to pass the various levels of school work at the expected rate. A study of Louisiana rural schools of 1937 indicated that "there is very little evidence to support the idea that the rural school, as an established institution, feels any responsibility to the community in which it is located."⁴

⁴ Marion Bush Smith, *Sociological Analysis of Rural Education in Louisiana* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1938), p. 90.

A school system which has consolidated the primary grades far away from the homes of the children can well expect to find more than half the children six years of age not enrolled in school.⁵ The fact that the rural schools for colored children are not consolidated may be one explanation for the fact that they enter school earlier than is characteristically true of the white children from rural homes.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 30 and 90.

Iowa's Contribution To National Leadership: A Study of Iowans in Who's Who

By C. Arnold Anderson† and Bryce Ryan††

ABSTRACT

This study compared three groups of Iowans listed in the 1938-39 *Who's Who*: Iowa born living in Iowa, Iowa born living elsewhere, men born elsewhere living in Iowa. Four-fifths of the "leaders" born in Iowa migrated elsewhere, a fourth as many came in from other states; on balance Iowa utilized two-fifths as many eminent men as were born there. The relative migration rates did not vary greatly with age, but "leaders" were much more migratory, both for frequency and distance, than the general population. Iowa's yield of notables, compared to older states and in proportion to population, has increased. "Leaders" leaving traveled farther than those coming to Iowa, and this exchange has been principally with eastern states. The regional distribution of notables leaving Iowa corresponds to that of employed males rather than to that of all Iowa out-migrants. The exchange of "leaders" with other states is selective for occupation.

RESUMEN

Este informe compara tres grupos de naturales de Iowa incluídos en el *Quién es quién*: los nacidos en Iowa que viven en Iowa, los nacidos en Iowa que viven afuera, y hombres nacidos afuera que viven en Iowa. Cuatro quintas partes de los líderes nacidos en Iowa se mudan afuera, una cuarta parte vienen de otros estados; en fin, Iowa emplea dos quintas partes más de personas sobresalientes de los nacidos allí. La tasa relativa de migración no varía gran cosa con la edad, pero los líderes eran mucho más migradores, en cuanto a la frecuencia y la distancia, que el nivel general de la población. La cosecha de personas eminentes de Iowa comparada con la de otros estados más antiguos, y en proporción a la población, ha aumentado. Los líderes que han salido han viajado

más lejos que los que han venido a Iowa y este intercambio ha sido principalmente con los estados del este. La distribución regional de personas eminentes que han salido de Iowa corresponde más bien a la de varones empleados que a la de emigrantes de todo el estado de Iowa. El intercambio de líderes con otros estados es selectivo por ocupación.

Our agricultural states have long provided migrants to industrial and urban areas, and these shifts of population have been described and analyzed in detail. Less attention has been paid to the movement of leaders among the areas of the nation. The present paper summarizes the contribution of one prosperous farm state, Iowa, to the group of eminent men included in *Who's Who* and also the counter flow of noteworthy individuals into Iowa.¹

Volume of Exchange of Leaders Between Iowa and Other States

1. *Four-fifths of the natives of Iowa listed in Who's Who were living in other states. Iowa received one-fourth as many natives of other states as it sent out from its own sons.*

The several commonwealths vary in their demonstrated capacity to produce and to utilize individuals designated as "leaders" in national registers. Iowa clearly belongs to the group of states exporting more eminent men than it acquires or utilizes.

¹ While *Who's Who* has many shortcomings with regard to selectivity and completeness, it is a sufficiently comprehensive register of outstanding persons for this exploratory study.

The numbered and italicized statements throughout the text are a summary of the paper.

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In the 1938-39 issue of *Who's Who* 1023 persons reported Iowa as their birthplace. Only 187 (or 18 per cent) of these were then resident in Iowa, while 836 (82 per cent) lived elsewhere (Table I). At the same time 199 eminent men (including a handful of women) born outside of Iowa had moved into that state. More than four times as many "leaders" departed as entered Iowa. Since the state had drawn in about the same number as it retained from among its native sons, in the final balance Iowa had about two-fifths as many "leaders" resident as were born there.²

2. *The distributions of ages were similar in the three groups of "leaders": natives of Iowa living in Iowa, natives of Iowa living in other states, natives of other states living in Iowa.*

These distinguished men who were both natives and residents of Iowa in 1938 were the eldest group, the Iowans who had migrated out of the state were the youngest, while the "leaders" migrating into Iowa were intermediate in age (Table II). None of the differences was marked.

3. *The proportion of eminent native sons of Iowa who were residing in other states was the same for every age group, except the oldest.*

² This computation rests on the assumptions that the death rate is about the same in all states, that migration itself does not affect mortality, and that the age of becoming eminent is similar whatever the state of residence.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF EMINENT MEN BORN OR RESIDING IN IOWA, BY DATE OF BIRTH

| Birth Period | Number born in Iowa | | | No. born outside Iowa in 1938 | Total living in Iowa in 1938 | No. resident in Iowa in 1938 as percent of number born in Iowa | |
|--------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--|----|
| | Total | No living in 1938 In Outside Iowa | Percent remaining In Iowa | | | | |
| —1869 | 186 | 52 | 134 | 28 | 51 | 103 | 55 |
| 1870—79 | 355 | 62 | 293 | 17 | 60 | 122 | 34 |
| 1880—89 | 335 | 51 | 284 | 15 | 60 | 111 | 33 |
| 1890— | 147 | 22 | 125 | 16 | 28 | 50 | 34 |
| Total | 1023 | 187 | 836 | 18 | 199 | 386 | 38 |

Approximately one-sixth of all the men born in Iowa after 1869, who were living in 1938 and regarded as distinguished, were residents of the state. That more than a fourth of the men born before 1870 were still in Iowa may be attributable to the wide scope of opportunities in a pioneer state. The ratio of in-migrants to out-migrants was also high for those born in this earliest period (Table I).

4. *Leaders have been more migratory than the general population.*

An increasing percentage of the total population born in Iowa have been recorded by successive censuses as residents of other states, but of course each census showed a smaller proportion of Iowa residents to have been born in other states. The 1930 enumeration revealed that over one-third of native Iowans lived else-

where and one-fifth of the Iowa residents were born outside the state. By contrast, more than four-fifths of the contemporary "leaders" who had been born in Iowa had migrated to other states and over one-half of the eminent residents of Iowa were born in some other state.

When we compare the successive age-groups of "leaders" with the comparable cohorts of the whole population, we observe that an increasing proportion of all native Iowans have taken up residence in another state but that about the same fraction of "leaders" moved out of Iowa irrespective of year of birth. On the other hand, while the total resident population of Iowa has probably³ become

³ We say probably because Iowa exports population though these census figures include children.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF IOWANS IN WHO'S WHO BY YEAR OF BIRTH

| Birth year | Total | Born in Iowa | | Born outside |
|------------|-------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | Living in Iowa | Living outside | Living in Iowa |
| —1869 | 19 | 28 | 16 | 25 |
| 1870—79 | 34 | 33 | 35 | 30 |
| 1880—89 | 32 | 27 | 34 | 30 |
| 1890— | 15 | 12 | 15 | 15 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Mean | | 1877 | 1879 | 1878 |

increasingly native born, an increasing proportion of "leaders" living in Iowa were born outside.

Iowa's Increasing Yield of Eminent Men

5. *Iowa's output of men who have become eminent has been increasing. In common with other newer states, Iowa's share of the individuals in Who's Who is approaching that of older states.*

Among all the men listed for the first time in the 1899 volume of *Who's Who*, 1.8 percent were born in Iowa; in the 1938-39 issue the percentage of newly listed persons who originated in Iowa had risen to 4.4 per cent. The corresponding share of Massachusetts (commonly used as an older state noted for its large number of famous men) dropped from 10.3 to 4.7 per cent between these two dates. Ohio, another older state, changed slightly from 7.0 to 6.6 per cent and the young state of Nebraska gained from 0.2 to 1.4 per cent.

Natives of Iowa comprised 2.8 per cent of all the men included (not merely for the first time) in the 1924 issue, and natives of Massachusetts were 8.0 per cent of the total; in the 1936 volume the respective percentages were 3.4 and 6.5.⁴ Clearly the rates of production of eminent men in the several states—as indicated by listing in *Who's Who*—have been converging.

The percentage that the natives of

⁴ This complete tabulation by state of birth was not included in the 1938-39 volume.

a given state form of all those listed is affected by the changing numbers born in other states. It is helpful, therefore, to compare relative changes in the actual numbers of persons from various states. Iowa had 698 representatives and Massachusetts had 2,020 in the 1924 volume of *Who's Who*; in 1936 the numbers were 1,060 and 2,035 respectively. Thus the number of natives of Iowa who had become eminent increased a half while the number from Massachusetts remained nearly constant. The censuses nearest the typical birthdate for individuals in the 1924 and 1936 volumes were those of 1870 and 1880. Between these dates Iowa's population increased about one-third and that of Massachusetts about one-fifth. Proportionately, therefore, Iowa made a much better relative showing in the latter year.

Even more enlightening are the ratios of "leaders" per hundred thousand of total state population. Using the 1924 volume of *Who's Who* and the 1870 base population, the yields for Iowa and Massachusetts are 58 and 140; using the 1936 volume and the 1880 populations, the respective rates are 65 and 114. Visher⁵ studied American Men of Science, a more select group, and found the same shift toward relatively higher productivity of noted men by younger states in recent years. His index numbers for

⁵ Visher, SS. *Geographical Study of American Notables: a Statistical Study of Birthplace, Training, Distribution: an Effort to Evaluate Various Environmental Factors*. Indiana University Studies, 15 (1928).

Massachusetts for the 1903 and 1924 registries were 109 and 44; for Iowa 30 and 33.

Geographic Patterns of Migration Of Iowa's Eminent Men

6. "Leaders" who had migrated out of Iowa traveled farther than those coming into Iowa. The range of out-migration has increased in recent years, but the in-migrants have been coming progressively shorter distances.

More than half the men born in each period in Iowa but removing to another state had by 1938 come to reside in the most distant parts of the nation (Table III). From these same states Iowa drew a little more than a fourth of its incoming notables or men who became notable. The portion of out-migrants to the most re-

mote area increased with time slightly, while the proportion entering Iowa declined.

7. The exchange of leaders has been preponderantly with eastern states. In recent years the east has become a less important source of notables for Iowa but a more frequent destination for natives of Iowa listed in *Who's Who*.

All in all the western states have played a more important role in this leadership exchange than one might expect on the basis of their share in the national population (Table IV). The ratio of the number of individuals moving eastward to the number going westward increased from 116 (for men born prior to 1880) to 175 for those born later. On the other hand, the eastern states contributed four times as many of the older leaders as did the west but only one and

TABLE III
GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF DESTINATIONS AND SOURCES OF MIGRANTS
BY BIRTH PERIODS AND BY ZONES

| Zone* | 1869 | 1870-79 | 1880-89 | 1890- | Total |
|---|------|---------|---------|-------|-------|
| a. Percentages of migrants out of Iowa going to each zone | | | | | |
| 1 | 27 | 30 | 24 | 21 | 26 |
| 2 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 12 |
| 3 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 9 | 6 |
| 4 | 54 | 52 | 60 | 59 | 56 |
| Total Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Total Number | 127 | 284 | 272 | 118 | 801 |
| b. Percentages of migrants into Iowa from each zone | | | | | |
| 1 | 45 | 36 | 44 | 55 | 43 |
| 2 | 3 | 8 | 16 | 10 | 11 |
| 3 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 7 | 18 |
| 4 | 34 | 37 | 20 | 28 | 28 |
| Total Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Total Number | 36 | 49 | 54 | 29 | 168 |

*Zone 1: Ill., Minn., Wis., Mo., Neb., S. D., Kans.

2: N. D., Col., Mich., Ind., Ky., Mont., Wyo., Tenn., Okla., Ark.

3: Idaho, Tex., La., Miss., O., Utah., N. Mex., W. Va., Ala.

4: New England, N. Y., Pa., N. J., Del., Va., N. C., Ga., S. C., Fla., Wash., Calif., D. C., Md., Nev., Ore., Ariz.; also Canada, but none of the Iowa natives went to Canada.

one half times as many of the younger men.

The greater range of travel of out-migrants compared to in-migrants, shown above, is more conspicuous for the western than for the eastern states. Consistent with the general westward drift of national population, however, is the fact that Iowa obtained proportionately few men from the more distant western zones but a considerable share from the far

east. The frequently noticed eastward pull of trained persons shows up in the out-migration of Iowa born leaders.

As would be inferred from the foregoing discussion, Iowa born "leaders" are distributed more uniformly among the census regions than the birthplaces of men moving to Iowa (Table V). The Middle Atlantic states have absorbed increasing proportions of Iowans and the

TABLE IV

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF DESTINATIONS AND SOURCES OF MIGRANTS
BY EASTWARD AND WESTWARD SECTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

| -1879 | | | 1880- | | | |
|---|-------------|----------|----------|-------------|---------|----------|
| Zone | Eastern | Western* | Eastern | Western* | | |
| a. Percentage distribution of migration zones in eastward and westward direction | | | | | | |
| Born in Iowa—living elsewhere | | | | | | |
| 1 | 26 | 32 | 16 | 34 | | |
| 2 | 7 | 19 | 9 | 15 | | |
| 3 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 7 | | |
| 4 | 61 | 43 | 69 | 44 | | |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | | |
| Number | 221 | 190 | 248 | 142 | | |
| Born elsewhere—living in Iowa | | | | | | |
| 1 | 31 | 88 | 33 | 73 | | |
| 2 | 8 | 0 | 18 | 9 | | |
| 3 | 24 | 6 | 18 | 12 | | |
| 4 | 37 | 6 | 31 | 6 | | |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | | |
| Number | 67 | 17 | 51 | 32 | | |
| b. Percent of persons going and coming eastward and westward in each zone and time period | | | | | | |
| | Total Cases | Eastern | Western* | Total Cases | Eastern | Western* |
| Born in Iowa—living elsewhere | | | | | | |
| 1 | 119 | 49 | 51 | 89 | 46 | 54 |
| 2 | 52 | 29 | 71 | 44 | 50 | 50 |
| 3 | 25 | 56 | 44 | 24 | 58 | 42 |
| 4 | 215 | 62 | 38 | 233 | 73 | 27 |
| Total | 411 | 54 | 46 | 390 | 63 | 37 |
| Born elsewhere—living in Iowa | | | | | | |
| 1 | 36 | 58 | 42 | 40 | 42 | 58 |
| 2 | 5 | 100 | 0 | 12 | 75 | 25 |
| 3 | 17 | 94 | 6 | 13 | 69 | 31 |
| 4 | 26 | 96 | 4 | 18 | 89 | 11 |
| | 84 | 80 | 20 | 83 | 61 | 39 |

*Minn., Mo., etc., are called "West."

West Central region now supplies a larger percentage of in-migrants than formerly (table not shown).

8. *Notables migrate over a wider area than the general population. The distribution of Iowa born eminent men among the regions corresponds more closely to the existing distributions of male and professional populations than it does to the distribution of all migrating Iowans.*

Only a seventh of out-migrating Iowa born "leaders" were living in the West North Central region in 1938 but over three-fourths of all Iowa natives who had left the state remained within that region. By contrast, a fifth of the "leaders" but less than one per cent of all Iowa natives had moved to the Middle Atlantic region (Table V).

Considering the in-migrants, five-sixths of the general population of Iowa originated in the West North Central region though less than a fourth of Iowa's imported notables were born in this area. The East North Central states furnished nearly half of the "leaders" resident in Iowa but less than a tenth of Iowa's total population.

Geographic Patterns of Migration of Iowa's Eminent Men

The occupations of the men in our sample were classified in three different ways in order to explore the selectivity of migration in detail. The first classification embraced 34 specific vocations; for example, doctors teaching in a medical school were distinguished from those in practice.

An industrial classification was also used; for example, a chemist employed by the U.S.D.A. was assigned to government. Finally, broad professional fields were set up; natural science college professors were assigned to science, not teaching, for instance. Only the information regarding this professional classification is summarized in this paper.⁶

9. *The two groups migrating into or out of Iowa were more similar in occupational composition than either was like the natives remaining in Iowa.*

Government officials and lawyers were conspicuous among the natives remaining in the state. Technical-natural science and artistic-literary personnel preponderated among the Iowans out-migrating. Technical-natural science men, again, and educators stood out among the eminent men entering Iowa.

It is easy to see why lawyers and government officials would have more chance of success in their own commonwealth. Nor is the lack of a market for writers or artists in an agricultural state a mystery. Technicians and scientists are generally believed to be unusually migratory. The necessity of depending upon other states for educators is less easy to understand (Table VI).

We obtain considerable insight into the vocational structure of the state and the forces affecting the vo-

⁶ Although *Who's Who* is probably biased toward the inclusion of educators and government officials, our comparisons of migrants and non-migrants should not be seriously affected.

cational choices of its citizens by examining the net balance of natives plus and minus the migrants for the several professions (Table VII). Iowa utilizes less than two-fifths of all the number of eminent men who were born there. But considerable more than half of the number of educators and physicians, becoming eminent, find employment in Iowa. On the other hand, only about a fourth as many eminent social scientists and

artists or writers are living in Iowa as were born in that state.

Natives of Iowa who migrated to other states, and are now eminent, are distributed among the largest number of professional groups, while the men migrating in were least diversified. Sixty-three per cent of the Iowa born living in Iowa were government officials, lawyers, business men, or artists and writers. Of those migrating from Iowa, 58 per cent

TABLE V

REGIONAL PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NATIVE MALE AND PROFESSIONAL POPULATION AND OF TOTAL AND WHO'S WHO POPULATION ENTERING AND LEAVING IOWA

| | WHO'S WHO Population | | | | Total Iowa Population | |
|----------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | Total Native Male Population* | Native Male Professional Population* | Born in Iowa Living elsewhere | Born elsewhere Living In Iowa | Born in Iowa Living elsewhere | Born elsewhere Living in Iowa |
| N. Eng. | 6.6 | 7.4 | 5 | 8 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| M. Atl. | 21.6 | 27.1 | 20 | 13 | 0.8 | 1.6 |
| E. N. C. | 21.2 | 22.1 | 18 | 46 | 7.3 | 9.5 |
| W. N. C. | 9.1 | 8.2 | 14 | 23 | 76.6 | 86.4 |
| S. Atl. | 12.9 | 9.8 | 13 | 4 | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| E. S. C. | 8.1 | 4.7 | 2 | 1 | 0.2 | 0.6 |
| W. S. C. | 10.2 | 7.4 | 4 | 2 | 2.0 | 0.5 |
| Mt. | 3.2 | 3.1 | 7 | 1 | 3.9 | 0.4 |
| Pac. | 7.1 | 10.2 | 17 | 2 | 8.5 | 0.2 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100 | 100 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

* Excluding Iowa

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

| Occupational Group | Born in Iowa, Living in Iowa | Born in Iowa, Living elsewhere | Born Elsewhere, Living in Iowa |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Clergy | 5.4 | 9.5 | 14.2 |
| Law | 14.7 | 9.1 | 6.1 |
| Medicine | 8.1 | 4.2 | 6.6 |
| Artists and Literary | 12.9 | 19.5 | 13.3 |
| Business and Financial | 13.0 | 10.2 | 5.2 |
| Technical and Natural Science | 6.4 | 16.6 | 22.2 |
| Social Science | 7.0 | 9.4 | 6.6 |
| Education (general) | 10.3 | 10.8 | 19.7 |
| Government | 22.2 | 10.7 | 6.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Number | 187 | 836 | 199 |

were government officials, educators, technologists and scientists, and artists or writers. Scientists and technologists, educators, clergymen, and artists or writers totaled 70 per cent of the in-migrants.

10..*Different occupational groups of eminent men migrate from Iowa to the several regions of the nation in varying proportions. Migration to*

Iowa from the different regions is essentially random.

To present the data on this point would require two large tables. We are content, therefore, with the following summary.⁷

⁷ The expected or chance number going to each region was computed for each occupation and the square root of this number taken as a rough measure of sampling error. Differences twice this deviation were regarded as indicative.

TABLE VII
HOLDING POWER OF IOWA FOR LEADERS IN VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL FIELDS

| Occupational Group | Number Born in Iowa | Number Remaining Plus Entering | Net Percent Retained |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Clergy | 87 | 38 | 44 |
| Law | 100 | 39 | 39 |
| Medicine | 50 | 28 | 56 |
| Artists and Literary | 182 | 50 | 27 |
| Business and Financial | 107 | 34 | 32 |
| Technical and Natural science | 147 | 56 | 38 |
| Social Science | 90 | 26 | 29 |
| Education (general) | 107 | 58 | 54 |
| Government | 128 | 53 | 41 |
| Total | 1023 | 386 | 38 |

MIGRANTS FROM IOWA

| Occupation | Excess number to | Deficient number to |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|
| Clergy | E. N. C. | S. Atl. |
| Law | W. S. C. | — |
| Medicine | W. N. C. | M. Atl., S. Atl. |
| Artist, literary | M. Atl. | E. N. C., Mt. |
| Business, financial | M. Atl. | — |
| Technical and natural science | N. Eng., S. Atl. | W. N. C. |
| Social science | M. Atl. | S. Atl. |
| Education | E. N. C. | — |
| Government | W.N.C., S. Atl., Mt. | N. Eng., M. Atl., E. N. C. |

Fringe Settlement as a Two-Directional Movement

By Myles W. Rodehaver†

ABSTRACT

On the basis of this study of the interstitial area surrounding the urban center of Madison, Wisconsin, it was established that movement to the rural-urban fringe is a two-directional phenomenon. While certain factors, especially improved transportation facilities, have encouraged fringe settlement, the decision to move was based on factors which differed for the rural and urban components of the population. The former migrated to the fringe primarily in search of employment and educational opportunities, whereas the latter moved to escape the congestion of their former city environment. No significant differences were observed with respect to family size, length of residence, or occupation or education of head.

However, families which had previously resided in rural areas moved later in the family cycle. Family heads were older than was the case for urban families, and their average income was substantially lower. Significant differences were revealed with respect to organizational and political participation. The families which had moved from rural places were affiliated with fewer organizations, and they attended meetings with less frequency. In addition, they evinced less interest in the affairs of local government than did the families from urban places.

It is probable that the fact of having moved later in the family cycle, coupled with lower economic status, has militated against the intensity of social participation on the part of the rural contingent. The differential in this respect presents a social situation which calls for further study in this and in similar areas.

RESUMEN

Basándose en este estudio del área intersticial que rodea el centro urbano de Madison, Wisconsin, se estableció que el movimiento al borde rural-urbano es un fenómeno que funciona en dos direcciones. Mientras que algunos factores, especialmente las mejoras en las facilidades de transporte, han fomentado el establecimiento de la población en los bordes urbano-rurales, la decisión de mudarse se basa en factores que difieren para los componentes rurales y urbanos de la población. Aquéllos migraron al borde urbano-rural especialmente en busca de oportunidades de empleo y educacionales, mientras que los otros se mudaron para escapar la congestión de la vida urbana. No se notó ninguna diferencia significativa con respecto al tamaño de familia, el tiempo de residencia, la ocupación o educación del jefe de familia.

Sin embargo, familias que habían residido previamente en áreas rurales se mudaron luego más tarde en el ciclo de familias. Los jefes de familia eran de mayor edad que los de las familias urbanas y su promedio de ingresos mucho más bajo. Se notaron diferencias importantes con respecto a la participación organizacional y política. Las familias que se habían mudado de lugares rurales estaban afiliadas a menos organizaciones y asistían a asambleas con menos frecuencia. Además mostraron menos interés en los asuntos del gobierno local que las familias de los lugares urbanos.

Es probable que el hecho de haberse mudado más tarde en el ciclo de familia junto con el estado económico inferior haya contribuido a hacer menos intensa la participación social en el contingente rural. La diferencia en este respecto present a una situación social que pide más estudio en ésta y otras áreas parecidas.

Many assumptions regarding the rural-urban fringe are posited on the theory that settlement represents a move *outward* from the city. This

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theory was tested in an exploratory study of the fringe area surrounding the city of Madison, Wisconsin.¹ It was discovered that seven out of ten families in Madison's rural-urban fringe had moved there from urban places. Thus, at the same time that city people move out into the nearby rural areas to establish homes, people from farms and villages move in toward the city to avail themselves of urban employment and educational opportunities. Furthermore, approximately six out of ten of the family heads and their wives had been reared in non-urban places. It is thus possible to infer from this that their settlement in the fringe represents, for them, a "return to native haunts."

As a working definition of the area studied, the major emphasis was upon that area in which the land is utilized in an *urban* manner, while at the same time certain attributes of the *rural* are present as well. It is that zone of transition "between well-recognized urban land uses and the area devoted to agriculture."² The families interviewed were carefully selected and representative families.

The rural-urban fringe of Madison as delineated in the study comprises forty-nine "sections" in the townships adjacent to the city itself. The sections are those in which certain non-farm phenomena are present at their greatest intensity. The

criteria utilized in establishing the area comprised (a) the *proportion* of non-farm families to the total number of families in a given section, (b) the *density* of non-farm families per square mile (i.e., per township section), and (c) the *assessed valuation* of land and buildings per acre. Prior studies³ have associated the foregoing factors with *urban dwellers*. In other words, as we proceed outward from an urban center, the factors decline in intensity. The obvious procedure, then, is to concentrate analysis upon that area where the factors are at their greatest intensity. The fringe represents the maximum of these factors, not the total possible extent of the area.

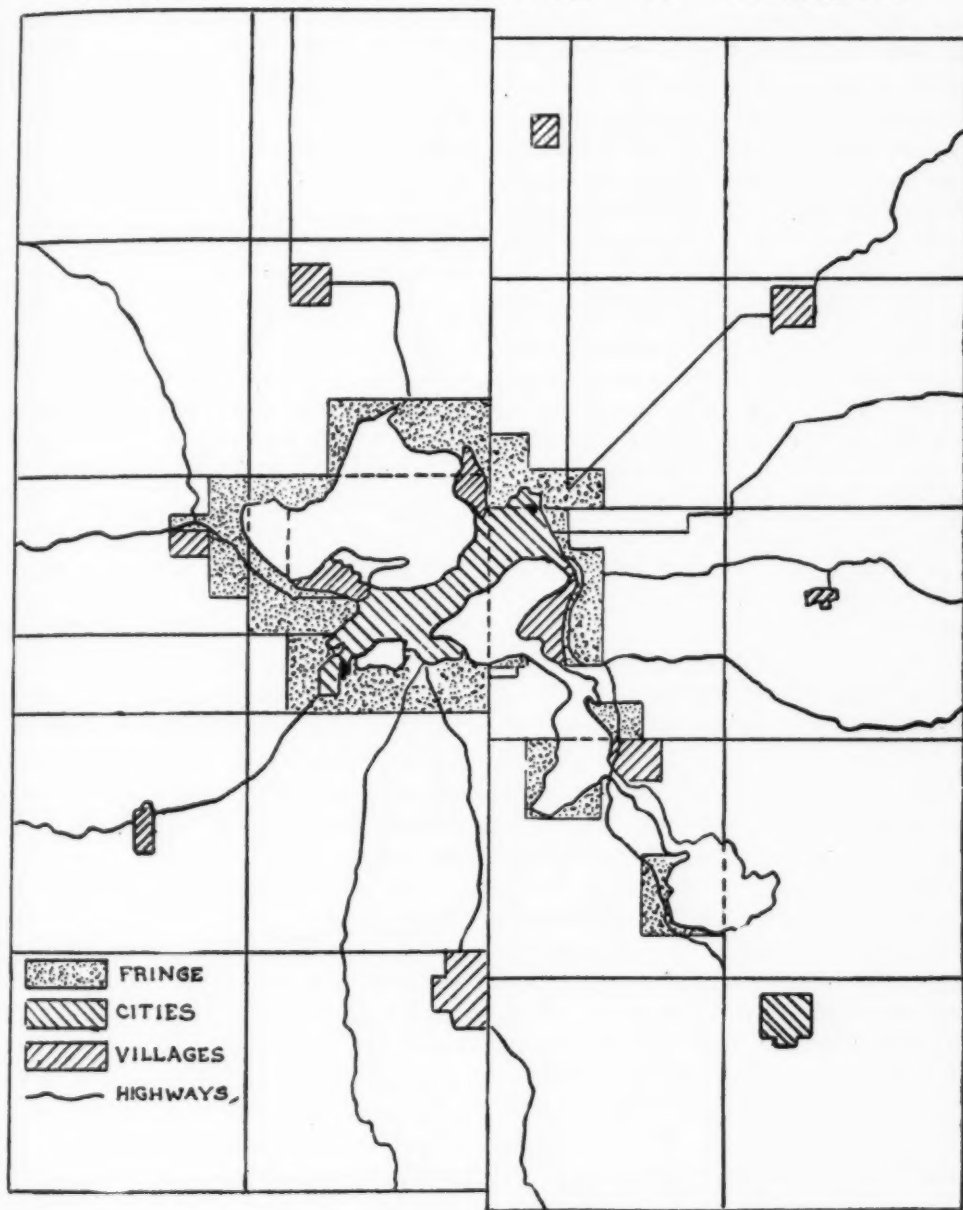
The forty-nine sections are clustered more or less evenly around the periphery of the city and are either contiguous to the city limits or contiguous to a section which does touch the corporation lines. Since commuting to the city for employment and other purposes requires easy access to good roads, the process of settlement has served to localize the heavier concentrations of non-farm population along the major highways leading into Madison. These concentrations, however, are relatively near to the city itself, and the radial communication lines out from Madison do not exert the "pull" which has characterized other decentralization movements of the population as ex-

¹ See author's *The Rural-Urban Fringe: An Interstitial Area*, unpublished Ph. D. thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1946.

² Wehrwein, George S., "The Rural-Urban Fringe," *Economic Geography*, (July 1942,) 217.

³ Cf., Thaden, J. F., *The Lansing Region and its Tributary Town-Country Communities*. Michigan State College AES Special Bulletin 302, East Lansing, (March, 1940.)

RURAL - URBAN FRINGE OF MADISON



perienced in the rural-urban fringe developments near other cities.⁴

Congestion has forced city dwellers to seek residential sites outside the city's boundaries, while the lack of available space has discouraged rural people from moving all the way into the urban centers and has "brought them up short" of the corporation lines. In this respect the phenomenon characterizing the Madison area is similar to that experienced elsewhere.

When patterns of mobility for the representative families interviewed were differentiated, three types emerged. The first, comprising 29 families, had made no moves since the beginning of the family cycle. This group represents 7.8 per cent of the sample families. The second type, comprising 65 families and representing 17.6 per cent of the sample families, had moved to the fringe from rural places, e.g., villages or farms. Of this group, 59 had made a "straight line" move to the fringe. The remaining six families had made an intermediary stop in an urban place before locating in the fringe. This number was considered to be too small to be useful in tests of significance of difference. The third major group, comprising 276 families and representing 74.6 per cent of all the sample families, had moved to the fringe from urban places. Of this group, 268 had made a "straight line" move to the fringe. The remaining eight had made an intermediary stop

in a rural place before locating in the fringe. Here again the number was considered too small to have any real significance for tests to be employed. Table I shows the distribution of the sample families with respect to mobility patterns.

TABLE I. DISTRIBUTION OF 370 SAMPLE FAMILIES IN THE RURAL-URBAN FRINGE, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| No Moves Since Marriage | | Moved from Rural Residence | | Moved from Urban Residence | |
|-------------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------|
| No. of Families | Per Cent | No. of Families | Per Cent | No. of Families | Per Cent |
| 29 | 7.8 | 65 | 17.6 | 276 | 74.6 |

The ways in which rural and urban backgrounds operate to differentiate the families in the fringe appeared to promise interesting data for further analysis. Whether or not differences in background manifest themselves in the fringe to a degree sufficient to affect interpersonal and group relations was the question to be answered. The results of the study indicate that such differences do exist and that they have an apparent effect upon the patterns of social relations. The results of such an analysis follow.

The "rural" and "urban" families differed at the outset in the reasons offered for their decision to move to the fringe. It is evident from the findings that the chief reason for "rural" families' moving to the fringe is employment and educational opportunities available in the nearby city. Thirty of the 65 families with a rural background offered this reason. This number represents 46.2 per cent of the rural group and comprises 63.8 per cent of all families offering this

⁴ Wehrwein, George S., "The Rural-Urban Fringe," *Economic Geography*, (July 1942,) 221.

as their reason for moving. Only 11, or four per cent, of the urban families moved in search of educational or employment opportunities.

At the same time that farmers and villagers move in *toward* the city for the reason noted above, city people move out *away* from the city to establish residences. The latter offer as their chief reason for moving to the fringe, "We needed more room" or "We wanted more play space for our children." 152 of the 276 urban families reported, in substance, such a reason. This number represents 55.1 per cent of the urban group and comprises 84 per cent of all families who gave this reason. 24.7 per cent of the rural families moved in quest of more space. While at first blush this may appear illogical, it is to be remembered that many of the families in this category were residents of villages in which physical conditions may have approximated the congestion of city life.

While the housing shortage at the time the study was made (1945) had not reached the proportions in evi-

dence today, the fact that no other housing was available at the time the move was made accounted for some decisions to locate in the fringe. 36, or 13 per cent, of the urban families gave this as their reason. This represents 90 per cent of all who offered such a reason. Only four of the rural families located in the fringe for this reason.

Table II shows the distribution of families in the two classifications with respect to the reasons given for movement to the fringe.

Not only did the rural families move to the fringe for reasons which differed from those of the urban families, but they undertook the move later in the family cycle. Using the criterion of the elapsed number of years after marriage before the move was made, it was found that the families in the two categories differed significantly, the critical ratio⁵ being 4.69. For the rural group the mean number of elapsed years was 15.0, and for the

$$^5 \text{ Critical Ratio} = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{E_D}$$

TABLE II. REASONS FOR MOVING TO FRINGE OFFERED BY FAMILIES IN TWO CATEGORIES, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

| Reason for Moving | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|--|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | Number | Per cent | Number | Per cent |
| To acquire more space | 152 | 55.1 | 16 | 24.7 |
| Employment and educational opportunities | 11 | 4.0 | 30 | 46.2 |
| No other place available | 36 | 13.0 | 4 | 6.2 |
| Lower taxes or rent | 24 | 8.7 | 3 | 4.6 |
| To build home | 14 | 5.1 | 2 | 3.1 |
| Preferred lake location | 21 | 7.6 | 3 | 4.6 |
| Health reasons | 7 | 2.5 | 3 | 4.6 |
| To retire | 2 | 0.7 | 2 | 3.1 |
| Other reasons | 9 | 3.3 | 2 | 3.1 |
| Total | 276 | 100.0 | 65 | 100.2 |

urban it was 9.0. Table III shows the distributions for the families in the two classifications.

TABLE III. NUMBER OF YEARS ELAPSING AFTER MARRIAGE BEFORE FRINGE MOVE WAS MADE FOR TWO GROUPS, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| Elapsed Years | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|---------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | No. | Per Cent | No. | Per Cent |
| Less than 5 | 107 | 38.8 | 13 | 20.0 |
| 5-9 | 86 | 31.2 | 21 | 32.3 |
| 10-14 | 34 | 12.3 | 10 | 15.4 |
| 15-19 | 24 | 8.7 | 9 | 13.8 |
| 20-24 | 12 | 4.4 | 4 | 6.2 |
| 25-29 | 3 | 1.1 | 3 | 4.6 |
| 30 and over | 10 | 3.6 | 5 | 7.6 |
| Total | 276 | 100.1 | 65 | 99.9 |

As a logical corrolary to movement to the fringe at a later stage of the family cycle, it was found that the rural family heads were older than the heads of the urban families. The mean age for the former was 43.4 years. For the latter it was 39.6 years. Tests revealed the difference to be significant, the critical ratio being 2.55. Migration toward the city, when it represents movement by the entire family unit, is undertaken later in life than is the case with mi-

TABLE IV. AGE OF HEAD FOR TWO GROUPS, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| Age of Head | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|-------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | No. | Per Cent | No. | Per Cent |
| 20-24 | 6 | 2.2 | — | — |
| 25-29 | 37 | 13.4 | 7 | 10.8 |
| 30-34 | 64 | 23.2 | 12 | 18.5 |
| 35-39 | 59 | 21.4 | 14 | 21.5 |
| 40-44 | 35 | 12.7 | 7 | 10.8 |
| 45-49 | 34 | 12.3 | 9 | 13.8 |
| 50-54 | 20 | 7.2 | 5 | 7.7 |
| 55-59 | 9 | 3.3 | 3 | 4.6 |
| 60-64 | 5 | 1.8 | 3 | 4.6 |
| 65-69 | 1 | 0.4 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 70-74 | 2 | 0.7 | 3 | 4.6 |
| 75 and over | 4 | 1.4 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Total | 276 | 100.0 | 65 | 99.9 |

gration on the part of individuals, many of whom come from the youthful age groups. Table IV shows the comparison between the two classifications.

Although the heads of rural families were, on the average, nearly four years older, and the families themselves moved six years later in the family cycle, there was no difference in family size.⁶ In each classification the families averaged 3.9 members. While the evidence at hand offers no conclusive proof, it does suggest that something in the way of an optimum operates with respect to size of family in the rural-urban fringe. This is borne out by comparison with families from other population groups. The fringe family is relatively large, so far as modern families go, being larger than the average for the city of Madison, an urban community (3.1 members) and for the rural non-farm of the state of Wisconsin (3.4 members), but slightly smaller than the average for the rural farm of Wisconsin (4.1 members).⁷ Table V shows the distributions for the rural and urban families in the fringe.

Length of residence in the fringe averaged precisely the same, 4.8 years, for families in both classifications. This suggests that the factors which served as incentives for movement to the rural-urban fringe became operative at the same time for

⁶ "Family" here includes the head and all persons in the home related to the head by blood, marriage, or adoption, who live together and share common housekeeping arrangements.

⁷ All averages compiled from figures in the 16th Census of the United States, 1940.

TABLE V. FAMILY SIZE FOR TWO GROUPS, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| Family Size No. of Persons | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | No. | Per Cent | No. | Per Cent |
| 1 | 2 | 0.7 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 2 | 42 | 15.2 | 11 | 16.9 |
| 3 | 68 | 24.6 | 12 | 18.5 |
| 4 | 95 | 34.5 | 21 | 32.3 |
| 5 | 36 | 13.0 | 13 | 20.0 |
| 6 | 20 | 7.2 | 4 | 6.2 |
| 7 | 7 | 2.5 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 8 | 4 | 1.4 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 9 | 2 | 0.7 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Total | 276 | 99.8 | 65 | 99.9 |

both groups. The relative recency of this move is explained in part by the slight acceleration of building which took place just prior to the war, representing a backlog of construction holding over from the building lag of the Great Depression. Table VI shows length of residence for families in the two classifications.

TABLE VI. LENGTH OF RESIDENCE FOR TWO GROUPS, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| Length of Residence Years | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|------------------------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | No. | Per Cent | No. | Per Cent |
| Less than 3 | 96 | 34.8 | 34 | 52.3 |
| 3-5 | 100 | 36.2 | 15 | 23.1 |
| 6-8 | 39 | 14.1 | 6 | 9.2 |
| 9-11 | 17 | 6.2 | 4 | 6.2 |
| 12-14 | 13 | 4.7 | 2 | 3.1 |
| 15-17 | 7 | 2.5 | — | — |
| 18-20 | 2 | 0.7 | 1 | 1.5 |
| 21 and over | 2 | 0.7 | 3 | 4.6 |
| Total | 276 | 99.9 | 65 | 100.0 |

No significant differences existed with respect to occupation of head or education of head. The mean number of years of formal schooling for the urban heads was 11.5 and for the rural, 10.2. The critical ratio fell below 2.00, the generally-accepted criterion for significance for sociological data. The family heads were primarily in

the skilled and unskilled occupational categories. These two classifications accounted for 50.8 per cent of the rural and 45.3 per cent of the urban heads. Application of the *Chi square* test failed to reveal any significant differences in the distributions.

The difference in total family income in the two groups was, however, significant. The mean income for the urban families was \$3,302.50. For the rural families the mean was \$2,355.00. When the means were tested for significant difference, the critical ratio obtained was 91.24. Since there is no significant difference with respect to occupational categories, one possible inference from the above is that the older heads of rural families who have moved later in the family cycle, yet have resided for the same period of time in the rural-urban fringe, have, somewhere along the line, failed to make the same satisfactory adjustment financially as was achieved by the heads of urban families. No supporting evidence for this hypothesis is at hand, however. Table VII shows the distribution of the families by income classification.

TABLE VII. TOTAL FAMILY INCOME FOR TWO GROUPS, BY PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE.

| Income in Dollars | Urban Families | | Rural Families | |
|----------------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | No. | Per Cent | No. | Per Cent |
| Less than 1,500 | 13 | 4.7 | 7 | 10.8 |
| 1,500-1,999 | 24 | 8.7 | 9 | 13.8 |
| 2,000-2,999 | 105 | 38.0 | 23 | 35.4 |
| 3,000-3,999 | 69 | 25.0 | 16 | 24.6 |
| 4,000-4,999 | 49 | 17.8 | 8 | 12.3 |
| 5,000-5,999 | 13 | 4.7 | 2 | 3.1 |
| 10,000 and over | 3 | 1.1 | — | — |
| Total | 276 | 100.0 | 65 | 100.0 |

The urban families achieved higher participation scores than did the rural families. One index of participation is affiliation with organizations and attendance at meetings of these organizations. To state that a family participated both in Madison and in the fringe would be meaningless, unless there were some means of showing *how much* participation was associated with each place. For that, a scoring device of some sort is essential. 16 different types of organizations were listed as general, inclusive categories. Under these were subsumed all the various kinds of groups to which a fringe family would ordinarily belong. The organizations were further classified, according to the total number of meetings held per year, under three headings, namely, "monthly," "bi-weekly," and "weekly," showing the elapsed interval of time between regular meetings in each case. For each of these categories the total number of meetings available to the members was divided into thirds. The upper third constituted "regular attendance," the middle third "occasional attendance," and the lower third "infrequent attendance." Infrequent attendance in an organization which meets monthly is the smallest amount of participation possible. Such attendance received a score of 1. Since the total of possible meetings was divided equally into thirds, occasional attendance was given a score of 2, and regular attendance a score of 3. For organizations meeting twice a month, the score in each instance was doubled

and for organizations meeting monthly the score was quadrupled.

For organizations located in the rural-urban fringe itself, the rural families' scores were slightly lower than the urban families'. Factors related to this phenomenon would include the lower income level of the rural families and the factor of having moved to the fringe later in the family cycle. When participation scores with respect to organizations, located in the city of Madison were compared, the difference observed was even greater. It is evident from this that the rural families have not become as much a part of the "larger community" in its metropolitan outreach as have the urban families.

Likewise, the families which had moved from rural places displayed less interest in the affairs of local government than did the families in the urban category. Using the criterion of participation in the most recent local election, it was found that only 25, or 38.5 per cent, of the rural families had participated, whereas 167, or 60.5 per cent, of urban families had voted in the local election. When the two groups were compared, a significant difference was revealed, the critical ratio being 3.28.

Summary. It is thus established that movement to the rural-urban fringe represents a two-directional phenomenon. While certain factors, especially improved transportation facilities, have encouraged fringe settlement, the decision to make the move was based on factors which dif-

ferred for the rural and urban components of the population. The former migrated to the fringe primarily in search of employment and educational opportunities, whereas the latter moved to escape the congestion of their former city environment. No significant differences were observed with respect to size of family, length of residence, occupation of head, or education of head.

On the basis of certain other factors, however, significant differences were in evidence. The families which had previously resided in rural areas had made the move to the fringe later in the family cycle. The heads of such families were older than the urban heads. The average income for the rural families was substantially lower than that for the urban families.

When the two groups of families

are compared with respect to organizational and political participation, significant differences are revealed. The families which moved from rural places belonged to fewer organizations and they attended meetings of such organizations with less frequency. In addition, they evinced less interest in the affairs of local government.

It is highly probable that the fact of having moved to the fringe at a later period in the family cycle, coupled with lower economic status, has militated against the intensity of social participation. In any event, the families in the rural category appear to be less a part of the "community" than is the case for the urban contingent. The differentials in this respect present a social situation which should challenge further study in this and other similar areas.

NOTES

Edited by Paul H. Landis

DUN AND BRADSTREET AS A SOURCE OF SOCIOLOGICAL DATA

In a recent study of 40 counties, Dun and Bradstreet material was collected and tabulated in a variety of ways to determine what information would contribute the most to a better understanding of the trade areas. All of the data concerning the establishments listed were tabulated for 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1935, 1940 and 1945. The 1935 period was included to study the effect of the depression and the 1945 period to see what effect war had upon the trade centers. In addition, for three counties in the Northeast, data were obtained for 1867, 1870, 1880 and 1890.

It was hoped that the data would help in community analysis in at least four ways. First, that it would furnish an inventory of retail establishments and that ratios between population and services could be found. The data locates the places of business, gives the number of establishments, and the number and types of services offered. Underenumeration of establishments and services seems to be the greatest weakness of the data. This is accounted for partially by the fact that branch stores are not always listed and that some people who work for themselves, such as carpenters, may not be included. It was found that some establishments located in the country or in a small hamlet were listed with those in a nearby town so that omissions were not as frequent as first appeared when canvassing a community. General systems of utilities, such as telephones, covering a wide area were not listed by Dun and Bradstreet but local systems were listed.

Terminology and local custom seem to affect the reporting of goods sold. For example, automobile services varied with locality. In some parts of the country the term "filling station" was used rarely so that an establishment listed as "service station" in one place might offer the same service as an

establishment listing "filling station, auto accessories and repair" in another place. Since many establishments offered several services, the number and kinds of services seemed better for comparisons than number of establishments.

It was found that ratios between population and services could not be established on a neighborhood or community basis because of the overlapping of trade areas. It was feasible on a county basis where the county area was approximately the same as the trade area. Variations in ratios in different parts of the country and trends in ratios in certain sections might be shown. There is some indication that the types and number of services reflect the standard of living of the community but more research is needed before definite conclusions can be drawn.

Second, it was hoped that trends in number and types of retail establishments and the changes brought about through various factors at work in the community could be observed. The data did show these trends and reflected changes caused by population shifts, drought, floods, increased transportation facilities, financial depression, rationing, etc. If yearly tabulations could have been made, a more accurate picture of changes would have been obtained. A study of the maps in Dun and Bradstreet explained some conditions resulting from geographical isolation of communities. As new railroads and paved roads appeared on the map, changes were noted in the location of communities and the services offered. For example, tourist trade sprang up on through highways, especially near summer resort areas.

Third, it was thought that by tracing the ownership of establishments over a number of periods the continuity of certain firms would be secured. Some social significance

might be attached to the ownership of the same business through succeeding years. However, it was found impossible to determine how long firms stayed in business from data given at 5- or 10-year intervals. Even though the name remained the same, the firm might have gone out of business or might have been sold to another party during the interval between tabulations. On the other hand, one establishment might offer the same services for successive periods under different firm names.

Fourth, the credit ratings were expected to show the importance of establishments in the trade areas. The ratings did reflect the growth and decline of establishments, but they were not used in comparing establishments because frequently the credit ratings were omitted and often one rating was given for several establishments owned by one person or corporation. Credit ratings do indicate to some degree the size of an

establishment and sometimes explained why in a growing community where one large establishment took the place of several small ones, there were fewer establishments with a given kind of service.

In the study of trade areas the data served as a stimulus to further research, they aroused questions which required more careful analysis of community problems, and pointed up some conditions which might have been overlooked. The data helped: (1) to locate the trade centers in the area and to show their relation to one another; (2) in analyzing the reasons for the rise and decline of trade centers by showing some of the effects of such factors as shifts in population, changes in industries, depression, and war; (3) by reflecting the character of the community, the means of livelihood of the people, and some of the needs of the community.

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Bureau of Agricultural Economics

THE CHALLENGE OF RURAL HEALTH

(Operation Public Welfare Number 1)

The basic American rural population is divided into seven broad regional groups, about two and one-half of which suffer debilitatingly from widespread but easily controllable diseases. These diseases are carried by certain parasites, the nature of the control of which we understand, or they arise in sets of conditions which are now subject to eradication. Since these diseases cause widespread human misery but are easily minimized or eradicated, the challenge arises: Shall the American public which cooperates so well in defending freedom, making wars, and developing atomic energy fail to tackle the problem of the elimination of these areas of misery? *Operation Public Welfare Number One* could eradicate most of these diseases and centers of human misery as well as *Operation Crossroads* can test the atomic bomb.

The Rural Health Challenge

The seven basic regions of American ruralism are the Northeast (Chicago to New York and northwards), the Appalachian-Ozarks region, the Cotton South, the Cornbelt, the Wheat Regions, the Arid West, and the Pacific Area. All of these regions have definite physiographic reasons for existence, developmental historical experiences, and produce well-recognized typical personalities. Most readily discernible illustrations of the latter are the hill-billy, the southerner, the two-gallus farmer of the cornbelt, and the dairyman of the northeast.

In only two and a half of these rural regions are there great challenging problems distinct and separate from the general problem of all public health. These are the regions of the Appalachian-Ozarks, the South, and the southern half of the Arid

West which is populated largely by Spanish-Americans, Indians, and mixtures of these two groups. Among the peoples of these three areas exists a series of anemias and disfiguring diseases stemming widely from faulty dietaries, malaria, dengue fever, hookworm, intestinal and other semi-tropical parasites, and, in certain instances, uncontrolled syphilis. Paradoxically, in the case of each of these diseases we already possess sufficient "know-how" for public control or eradication of them by effective and fairly cheap methods. All are connected, to a considerable extent, with ignorance among the people who suffer as to the means of transmittal of the diseases. All also arise in conditions of sanitation and living habits which are not considered as "clean" and "up-to-date" among the peoples of other regions. All are similar in effect upon their victims in that they are debilitating and not killing diseases so that the sufferers can carry on at low efficiency—half-sick and half-well.

The effect of a disease of this type can be illustrated by malaria, although the details apply as well to all of the others. Malaria in its many forms has now been driven almost entirely away from the temperate and urban regions to the rural and tropical regions. It is pitiful to go through the tropics and see tremendous numbers of people semi-efficiently attempting to make a living with those few healthy red corpuscles left them by the malarial parasite. In Siam in an investigation I conducted the finger-spleen index was used as a measure of rural health and was found to be most successful. The spleen enlarges to replace the red corpuscles eaten by the malarial and other parasites. We used as a rough index of conditions in each district the number of finger-widths the spleen extended, on the average, below the short ribs.

If it is pitiful to see such widespread anemic conditions in poverty-stricken tropical regions, it is a source of challenging shame to find many such regions existing in the United States with all our wealth, our scientific knowledge, and our highly-developed public conscience. Yet that is exactly

the case. Many districts in these three regions possess all the collections of epidemic and endemic parasites peculiar to foreign tropical lands. The masses of the rural people in the South, the Appalachian-Ozarks, and the Southwest are physically, economically, and culturally as impoverished as are the lost rural dwellers of the American and Asiatic tropics. This applies to the rural negroes, the share-croppers of the coastal plain, the subsistence dwellers in the Atlantic coastal plain from New Jersey to Brownsville, Texas, and to the whole agglomeration of mixed-bloods (Mestizos) who are the basis of the rural masses in the region west of New Orleans, south of Dallas, and east of California.

These facts are well known to the demographers, sociologists, and public health leaders of the country. Furthermore, as a prominent public health officer wrote me recently,

We have it within our power to wipe out malaria in the United States in a very short time and hookworm could be shortly curbed over a period of time which would not be much longer. Malnutrition and other anemias of certain kinds might, of course, be harder to bring under control.

The same statement applies to syphilis which from my own sources of information is much more widespread as at least a one-time infection among certain groups in these regions than we imagine.

(This correspondence came about as a result of an attempt of mine to establish an experimental feeding test in which a selected group would take quantities of feosol against anemias on the same principle that trichinosis, once gained, can be overset by rapid red blood corpuscle replacement.)

Proposed "Operation Public Welfare No. 1"

My proposal is relatively simple. Let us be as daring and constructive in the creation of a new public welfare as we are in our Martian activities. Such an attempt is more properly fitting in the Atomic Age than is the older individualistic, *laissez-faire* ap-

proach to the problem. That it has not been attempted before on a large scale, as has control of other types of diseases such as cancer, tuberculosis, poliomyelitis, is probably due to the facts that the regions are located away from our academic and urban centers, that the diseases are "merely" debilitating and not immediately killing, that individual refuges from the diseases have been available to the more well-to-do and agitating classes in the regions, and that there is no element of drama or mystery connected with the diseases. However, when our soldiers were forced to operate within regions where ravages from these same diseases became a matter of military weakness, the problem was surmounted at once.

Operation Public Welfare Number One would require organization, dramatic presentation of the issues involved, and sufficient private funds for a large dem-

onstration project. Four counties, one in the tidewater, one in the deep South, one in the mountains, and one among the Spanish-Americans, should be cleaned up. Approximately two million dollars and five years would be sufficient for the task. The main activities would consist of health examinations, control of the spread of disease, curative remedies by public measures and experimental feeding against anemias, such as feosol dosages, along with proper examination of the diets. Out of this could come a tremendous revitalization of the people and a considerable saving of lives in these three areas which are practically the only centers of familistic and child-bearing population remaining in America. We could also expect as an additional result a good deal of economic and social progress in these regions.

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ILLINOIS 4-H CLUB MEMBERS GO ALL OUT FOR FITNESS

A generation ago young America flexed his muscles, pounded his chest, and proclaimed his greatness. He pointed to himself and said, "Look at my fertile fields, my forests, my mineral and water resources; look at my size and beauty. I am growing rapidly, my body cells are active, I feel fine. Look me over; I am 'America First.'"

Shortly thereafter someone pointed out the open sores on our landscape, the burned forests, the deficient minerals, the gashed fields and polluted streams. America's beauty had been marred; its body had been scarred.

Then came the war. Military rejections indicated that about 50 per cent of our young men were unfit for vigorous outdoor life. At 28 years of age—at their prime—40.3 per cent were rejected; and by the time they had reached 44 years, 63 per cent of our young men were found unfit for military service. Among farmers who live out of doors, 56.4 per cent were rejected. Not

only our natural resources but our human resources as well have been wasted.

Why? Why should we find such poor condition, so many defects, such lack of vigor and stamina? Why should we observe so many soft-muscled, short-winded individuals on the street? Why should heart, kidney, and digestive diseases be so common? Why should so many have bad posture and flat feet? How could these conditions exist except as a result of our lack of knowledge or our lack of interest in dynamic health?

Is Fitness Important?

Many persons do not believe so. They think exercise should be avoided. They plan every kind of device to save work, seeing no benefits in physical activity. They are willing for schools to make health lectures compulsory, but not the practice. Unfortunately you can not get fit by listening to a lecture. Of course, there are some parts of the health program which, like a safety program, to be good must be low in experi-

ence; and in these phases boys and girls must be taught the value of good health without having to experience bad health. Not so with fitness, for there experience is the only teacher.

Fitness means four things to the physical educator:

1. Organic fitness—meaning a strong heart, efficient lungs, and a good digestive system.
2. A sturdy body—that is, a body well developed for its age and properly proportioned in bone, muscle, and fat.
3. Motor fitness—the possession of a certain degree of flexibility, strength, agility, balance, and endurance.
4. Body protection—the ability to protect the body from dangers. This involves knowledge of sanitation, disease prevention, safety, first aid, and swimming.

In addition to depending upon abundant resources, natural welfare depends upon abundant health. For vigor and efficiency we need more than enough health to escape the hospital. We must have dynamic health if we are to produce the 150-billion-dollar national income which economists say we should.

But only 9 per cent of those examined at the Peckham Health Center in London were without defects; 32 per cent were hampered by disease, and 59 per cent had disorders of which they were unaware. And many of the 59 per cent even experienced a sense of well being. According to Dr. Pearse and Dr. Williamson, they were compensating for their inabilities by limiting their activities. They were utilizing their reserves to buoy themselves up, when in fact they were exhibiting symptoms of devitalization. How we feel depends upon what we do. Those who never exert themselves may feel very well indeed, but they cannot be classed with the producers.

Our aim should be to do more—not less—work and to do it easily. Efficiency and condition go hand in hand, and condition results from training.

We benefit from training in many ways.

Exercise increases respiratory efficiency and reduces breathlessness. All evidence goes to show that the better trained person's heart has a larger output, a slower pulse, and a lower blood pressure. The flow of lymph is accelerated during exercise, and thus the supply of nutrients is increased and the removal of waste products hastened. Fatigue follows the accumulation of wastes and the failure of the muscles to transform food reserves rapidly enough into energy. Strange as it may seem, training delays the onset of fatigue.

Exercise stimulates growth throughout the body. The heart, lungs, liver, kidneys, brain, and muscles all increase with exercise. We often forget that the heart is a muscle; it is in fact the best muscle in the body. According to Dr. F. A. Schmidt, strong development of the heart during adolescence is vital to the individual's state of health throughout his entire life, and negligence in this respect cannot be remedied in later years.

These are the reasons why we should go all-out for fitness. Our experience during the past three years in testing over 5,000 4-H youth convinces us that boys and girls are interested in dynamic fitness when they understand its importance. Furthermore their interest grows when they have some means for measuring their progress. Consequently the program in Illinois is built around 19 motor fitness tests and 16 swimming tests. These are administered from time to time in order that improvement may be observed. Testing is the tool—but training, nutrition, sleep, and understanding are the conditioning agents.

The first four tests (see score sheet) are used to determine body type and normal rate of development in weight. Tests 5, 6, 7 and 8 are tests of organic fitness. In general those in better condition have a lower systolic blood pressure, a slightly higher diastolic pressure, and a lower pulse rate than the average for their age. On this basis the 1,019 girls tested in 1945 did not show as much improvement as did the 1,259 boys.

Keeping Fit Field Day Events Score Card

SCORE CARD

Illinois 4-H Club Work

Agricultural Projects

Name _____ No. _____
 last first Boy _____
 County _____ Girl _____
 Date of birth _____ Age _____
 mo. day yr. yr. mo.
 Date of tests _____
 mo. day yr.

| Be sure to take every test | Score |
|---|-------|
| 1. Weight | _____ |
| 2. Height | _____ |
| 3. Per cent of normal weight | _____ |
| 4. Body type | _____ |
| 5. Systolic pressure | _____ |
| 6. Diastolic pressure | _____ |
| 7. Pulse pressure (5 minus 6) | _____ |
| 8. Pulse rate | _____ |
| 9. Muscle firmness: arm____; leg____; abdomen____; average _____ | _____ |
| 10. Trunk forward | _____ |
| 11. Trunk backward | _____ |
| 12. Chins (with weights) | _____ |
| 13. Broad jump | _____ |
| 14. Agility run | _____ |
| 15. Breath-holding | _____ |
| 16. Run—600 yards | _____ |
| 17. Run—60 yards | _____ |
| 18. Drop off | _____ |
| 19. Sit-ups | _____ |

Muscle firmness generally increases with age and training. The tests indicate that the arm muscles of the younger boys and most of the girls are underdeveloped. There seems to be a deficiency in play equipment and in games which demand arm, shoulder, and chest muscle exercise. The development of the shoulder and chest region is of sufficient importance to warrant the invention of suitable play equipment.

Trunk bending forward and backward are flexibility tests. Girls excelled at all ages up to 16.5 years. Thereafter the differences between boys and girls were small.

The chinning test as usually administered was too difficult for all except boys over 15 years of age. Sixty-five per cent of the girls could not chin themselves once. For

this reason we changed the test (Test 12) counterbalancing one-fourth of the person's weight upon a set of pulleys. This made the test satisfactory for boys of all ages, but it was still too hard for the girls, 25 per cent failing. The scores increased by age for boys, showing a very rapid increase between the ages of 13 and 15 years. The average score for girls was 3.5 chins between the ages to 10 and 14, and thereafter the score decreased as the girls got older.

Ten-year-old girls jumped (Test 13) just about as far as 10-year-old boys, but thereafter the boys excelled the girls until at 16 years the boys could outjump the girls by 15 inches.

Boys were faster and more agile than girls. Boys showed improvement as they got older, but girls failed to show any gain after they passed 13 years. The agility run (Test 14) is a short dodging run with 10 changes in direction. The other agility test is the 60-yard run.

Breath-holding (Test 15) is a test for organic fitness. The person being tested runs in place at two steps per second for 60 seconds, after which he takes three deep breaths and then holds his breath as long as possible. For boys the time increased sharply with age. The average score for 10-year-old boys was 13.4 seconds, while for 17.5 year olds it was 21.9 seconds. Breath-holding time decreased for girls as they got older, indicating that they were decreasing in condition.

The 600-yard run, an endurance test, was completed in less than two minutes by 25 per cent of the boys. Over 90 per cent completed the run in three minutes or less.

The time decreased as boys got older. Girls showed no improvement after 12 years of age; in fact, on the average the older girls were slower than 12-year-olds.

Drop-off (Test 18) is an endurance test calculated as a difference between the score on the 600- and 60-yard runs. These scores decreased as age increased.

The number of times a person can sit up (Test 19) from a prone position is a test of endurance and strength. There is no difference according to age, and this fact may be

evidence of lack of development of strength in the abdominal and back muscles.

The tests show differences in the abilities of boys and girls and furthermore convince us that girls are not improving, but are losing in fitness as they approach maturity. On the whole rural youths are not as fit as we have been led to believe. Nevertheless, they are interested when they understand why. Therefore we believe leaders and parents should be more energetic in teaching the values of fitness. Adults who have observed the program have generally been interested; some have even taken the tests.

More than 5,000 boys and girls were tested during 1945 and 1946. Over 1150 were tested twice, and 64 per cent of the boys and 29 per cent of the girls showed improvement. A keeping-fit shoulder patch has been awarded to each of these 752 youngsters. More than 20 club members in Bond, Effingham, LaSalle, DeKalb, Daviess, Piatt, Shelby, Marion, and Macoupin counties are now wearing the award. Smaller numbers in 26 other counties are no less proudly wearing the shoulder patch which shows that they are keeping fit.

A training program including postural exercises, endurance games, flexibility games, and strength-building activities has been presented in a little bulletin called "Fitness Can Be Fun". It was found several years ago that hoeing, spading, and farm chores had better relationships with the motor fitness scores than did the member's participation in such games as baseball, football,

basketball, ping-pong, tennis, and the like. Recently a movie showing a typical physical fitness field day has been prepared for promotional work in the counties.

In addition to these fitness tests, a set of 16 swimming tests has been arranged; these tests are classified in the health area known as body protection. It was discovered during the past three years that 59 per cent of the boys and 87 per cent of the girls could not swim. The only opportunity to teach and test swimming ability is at the 4-H summer camps. The data collected last summer show that real progress can be made in swimming within a period of three days. Swimming beaches became beehives of work. One lifeguard said, "I believe more effort was put forth to learn to swim than at any previous time in my experience." His observation verified the first rule for building interest, which is: Give a person a means of measuring his progress if you want him to become interested in his learning.

This is the basis for the testing program. People will increase their fitness if they become interested in it. If the importance of fitness is explained to them and if means are provided for measuring their progress, they will become interested. This we must do. (We must not permit our 4-H's to become 4-F's.) We have a responsibility to conserve our present resources, both natural and human.

D. M. HALL

University of Illinois.

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Current Bulletin Reviews

Edited by Conrad Taeuber†

Editorial Note: This section will hereafter be edited by Walter C. McKain of the Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington 25, D. C. Bulletins intended for review should be sent to him.

Land Tenure Research

In this review of current land tenure research I will not examine any of the bulletins published during 1945 or 1946 specifically, but rather will use many of them as a basis for my discussion of the work done in the field. This is with the hope that attention can be directed toward research problems still unsolved. The comments presented here are a compilation of ideas gleaned from many bulletins and interpreted in light of current trends under various subjects:

Land Values. Land inflation during World War I did not end with the war. In fact the peak in land prices was not reached until the 1920's. During World War II farm land prices increased over their prewar values at about the same rate as during World War I. The next year or two will be the most critical with respect to the land market and future agricultural prosperity. Pressures are already evident from increased buying by returning veterans and war workers, and from the increased demand for land due to the easing of machinery and labor shortages and to the investment of accumulated savings.

The quarterly land market survey conducted in 133 counties by 20 land-grant colleges in cooperation with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics did a great deal to give a better understanding of the trends that are taking place and helped curb inflationary tendencies. Completed land market studies indicate that fortunately farmers have used their increased incomes to liquidate their indebtedness and to improve

their financial conditions generally. Many farms, even though purchased at high prices, were paid for in cash which tends to make the situation better than after World War I.

High farm incomes will undoubtedly continue for another year or two. But people are likely to forget the past, and again mortgage their farms beyond their productive values. A continued study of current land prices will help keep the facts before the public and will help extension workers and others develop programs to guide farm people in making sound investments during the immediate years ahead. Information on facts needed in buying farms, price trends, and capital requirements all help in developing a better understanding of how one can buy and pay for a farm and at the same time maintain a high level of living. Educational emphasis should be placed upon the need for using increased farm incomes to improve living conditions rather than dissipating them on higher capitalization of land.

Lease Studies. Leases continue to receive major attention from agricultural colleges. The war period brought about many changes in American agriculture, and the postwar readjustment period will bring about many more which require changes in leasing practices. In many states there is constant revision of lease forms and the development of new forms on the basis of experiences and observations to fit particular needs. It is necessary to study continually the effect of local custom, differences in type of farming and other factors that affect leasing practices, and to develop general principles as guides in bringing about mutual under-

† Assisted by Elsie S. Manny, Walter C. McKain, and Robert L. McNamara.

standing between landlord and tenant and to promote long-time occupancy on the farm.

Father-Son Partnership. Father-son partnerships are becoming more and more important. Both the rural community and the farm family have much to gain from a successful farm partnership. The development of a farm business agreement provides an opportunity for a young man to acquire experience and capital while operating the farm with his father. The total capital required to start farming today is more than that required a generation ago. The sharing of a farm with a son or another young man is not only an opportunity for a young man when he is ready to choose his life's work, but also is the solution to the problems facing many experienced farmers who want to retire but like to retain an interest in their farms.

A good business agreement is a real help to those people who are desirous of having the home farm owned and operated by succeeding generations. Studies indicate that a young man who takes over an efficient farm unit will have greater opportunity of succeeding than if he starts on a more limited basis. Insufficient land or needed equipment is a serious handicap in achieving success. Studies of human relations need to be continued in order to develop a better understanding of how such partnerships operate and what is involved in making them succeed.

Succession on Farms. The best method of transferring farms from one generation to the next is of increasing importance. The father-son partnership is one way of beginning and gradually taking over a farm. Little up-to-date data are available on how American farmers acquired ownership of land and what methods of transfer are used. A national study is under way on farm ownership. Closely allied is a series of studies in selected areas in the North Central and Eastern states in cooperation with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics on present inheritance and succession practices, their impact on farm land value, farm people, and farm operations. Much more in this field remains to be done.

Capital Requirements. With the return of veterans and war workers to farming areas, many research workers are compiling information to give a better understanding of what is involved in a financial way as well as on a personal basis, and what to look for in selecting and getting started on a farm. These publications bring to those interested an outlook of the farming opportunities and the problems they are likely to encounter. Agriculture does offer favorable opportunities on existing farms for many young people who are qualified by experience and training and who know they like farm life. Success in farming, as in other endeavors, depends upon the fitness of a particular person in that field. An understanding of the capital requirement factors involved in operating and paying for the farm will enable many young people to succeed, whereas purchase without a financial plan probably would lead to disastrous results. Perhaps even more localized information is needed on this subject.

Farm Tenure Improvement. The Inter-bureau Committee on Postwar Programs focused attention on the major farm tenure problems in the United States and made specific recommendations for continued improvement. Their study considered tenure in its broadest aspects—not only farm tenancy but also land ownership, farm mortgages, credit arrangements, inflated land prices, occupancy and control of land, present inheritance practices, interests of landless farm people, and the economic and social well-being of various tenure groups. One of its recommendations indicated that as a guiding principle it is well to keep in mind that the best way to promote prosperous agriculture is to keep the way open for land to be owned in family-sized units by those who till it.

The Northern Great Plains Agricultural Advisory Council appointed a Committee on Land Tenure, Land Values and Credit to study the factors necessary for the attainment of a stable and prosperous agriculture in the Northern Great Plains. The statement of the problems and the recommend-

ations of this committee clearly indicate the need for more thorough research on many aspects of tenure problems in the Plains. They also point, as have other regional studies, to the need for a continued educational program which brings to farm people a better understanding of the human relations involved. There is need to create a greater awareness about tenure problems and to stimulate enough thinking on the subject to lead to action resulting in improved farm tenure, not only in a specific area but in the United States as a whole.

A subcommittee of the North Central Regional Land Tenure Committee in considering developments affecting farm tenure points out that many of the present policies should be critically examined in order to understand the impact of these policies on farm tenure developments. Technological changes are having a significant influence on tenure at the present time. There is need for greater consideration to rental rates. A few of the public policies affecting tenure that should be closely scrutinized in the future are:

- (1) The effect of the concept of parity and other price influencing policies.
- (2) The effect of international trade, particularly in surplus agricultural commodities.
- (3) The effect of federal and state fiscal policies.
- (4) The effect of production control policies.
- (5) The effect of public policies related to minimum wages, unemployment compensation, and other practices in the hired labor field.
- (6) The effect of conservation practices involving capital outlays.

Land tenure research is branching out from describing tenure conditions and developing lease forms to some of the broader topics involved under land values, succession on farms, capital requirements needed to get started in farming, and some of the public policies affecting tenure. A beginning has been made as is evident from the research bulletins published in 1945 and 1946, but more needs to be done to strengthen land

tenure programs and policies if American agriculture is to keep pace with changing world conditions.

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Levels of Living

The study of *The changing composition of family budgets for selected groups of corn belt farmers 1940-42*¹ is based on analysis of 1,009 farm family budgets in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Iowa. Two-thirds of the budgets records were kept by Tenant-Purchase families of the Farm Security Administration and one-third by farm families cooperating with State Colleges of Agriculture.

Farm family living expenditures increase as incomes rise but at a declining rate. The rate of decline is more pronounced for necessities such as food and clothing and least prominent in the case of luxury items. Living expenditures are proportionately higher for college account-book families than for Tenant-Purchase families but the same contours of expenditures are to be found in each group. As the size of the family increases, moderate expenditure gains in necessary items are recorded but no definite pattern can be observed for luxury items. Capital expenditures (e. g., livestock, land, equipment) and debt adjustment are more responsive to levels of income than are living expenses.

The above mentioned relationships obtain whether the analysis is static (based on a cross section of families distributed by income and size of family) or dynamic (based on changes in income and size experienced by the same families between 1940 and 1942). The authors conclude that in the competition for disposable income between the desire to maintain or improve the family level of living and the desire to invest

¹ Willard W. Cochrane and Mary D. Grigg. *The changing composition of family budgets for selected groups of corn belt farmers. 1940-42.* 107 pp. Bur. Agr. Econ., U. S. Dept. Agr. Washington, D. C., Oct., 1946.

in capital goods, the former exercises a stabilizing influence and the latter is relegated to a residual position greatly affected by size of income.

A report on *The housing of Virginia rural folk*² gives (1) data on housing for the State with rural, urban, and national comparisons, and (2) data on rural residences by occupational status and race for counties and minor civil divisions. Data on various items such as types of cooking fuel, radios, refrigerators, autos, persons per room, and educational level are included for each county. Virginia has about 100,000 rural dwellings which are in poor condition. Farm incomes are low and there is a widespread lack of appreciation of better housing facilities. Housing and home conveniences of tenant farmers are inferior to those of owners, and Negro housing is inferior to that of whites. Housing conditions are poorest in counties with the best land and a large number of tenants and wage laborers, and in certain mountain and southern counties. Rural families with the poorest houses have about one-third more children than families with better houses. Sub-standard housing and lack of home conveniences disastrously affect family life and child welfare. This report is the first in a series designed to help agencies which are promoting improvement of farm homes.

Population

Data on migration from a special survey of more than 66,000 young people over 15, taken in 1941, are combined with the migration data of the 1940 census and the comparison of State of birth and State of residence in 1940 to provide the basis for a report on migration in and from and to Utah.³ Data for the special survey were secured by asking pupils in the 6th, 8th, 10th, and 12th grades to report on migra-

tion, occupation, and education of their siblings over 15 years of age.

Approximately half of the persons who had left home were still in the home county; "Elsewhere in Utah" and "Non-adjacent States" were about equally represented with about one-fifth each. Larger proportions of youth migrated from small communities than from large ones. While the farm population of Utah has been declining and the rural non-farm and the urban increasing, the total population of the State has increased steadily but slowly. Between 1935 and 1940 the excess of out-migrants over in-migrants amounted to more than 12,000 persons.

Population gains recorded in Rhode Island have depended largely upon European immigration and in-migration from other Northeastern States. *New Americans in rural Rhode Island*⁴ plots the distribution of foreign-born in Rhode Island towns (townships). For each nationality grouping the degree of urban concentration, the tendency toward rural settlement, and tendency towards farming as an occupation were measured by specially constructed indexes. A scale measuring the degree of socio-economic integration for each occupation was also devised. The socio-economic integration of each nationality type was then determined on the basis of the occupational distribution of its members.

The rate of reproduction in Louisiana is still considerably above replacement levels. Each year the surplus of births over deaths is sufficient to provide a considerable increase of population in the State or a large number of migrants to other States. In proportion to population, Louisiana's farm people are producing more than two children for every one born to the State's city people. Farm Negroes have higher reproductive rates than whites who live on farms, but urban Negroes are less prolific than urban whites. The population of French Catholic south Louisiana is multiplying far

² W. E. Garnett and others. *The housing of Virginia rural folk*. Va. Agr. Expt. Sta. Rur. Sociol. Rpt. 31. 48 pp. Blacksburg, Mar. 1946.

³ Joseph A. Geddes. *Migration, a problem of youth in Utah*. Utah Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 323. 31 pp. Logan, May 1946.

⁴ W. R. Gordon and A. A. Asadorian. *New Americans in rural Rhode Island*. R. I. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 298. 55 pp. Kingston, June 1946.

more rapidly than that of Anglo Saxon, Protestant north Louisiana. This difference prevails among all residential groups of both races. Except for the rural-urban differential it is the most significant difference observed. Type of farming exerts no clear influence on rates of reproduction. These are the major findings of a recent study of *Differential fertility in Louisiana*,⁵ based on data from the 1940 Census.

Community Studies

Community stability and enrichment are the companion goals discussed with reference to present and proposed Forest Service programs in the Libby-Troy (Montana) area.⁶ A brief description of community facilities and organization is followed by an analysis of local opinion regarding the policies of the Forest Service. The authors conclude that questions of economic reward and social control outweigh the techniques of forestry in shaping local opinion.

A study of *Social organization in relation to Extension Service*⁷ was made recently in Eaton County, Michigan. Detailed information was obtained from approximately 115 full-time farmers whose holdings averaged 152 acres. Nine sources of useful information about farming were reported by 10 percent or more of those interviewed. They are listed in order of importance as follows: Radio broadcasts (mostly weather forecasts or market reports), farm journals, neighbors, local newspapers, bulletins from Michigan State College, calling at office of county agricultural agent, conversation with teacher of vocational agriculture, attending demonstrations sponsored by Extension Service, calling county agricultural agent

on telephone. There was a clear relationship between a neighbor being a useful source of information and being a leader. Qualifications of leaders included: (1) Demonstration of success in farming; (2) Evidence of good judgment, and (3) Active interest in the welfare of farmers and in community affairs.

The farmers expressed favorable attitudes toward the Extension Service, accepting it as part of the social organization of the county. The neighborhood group and the rural school district were used more often than other social groupings in a direct way to develop extension services. Its programs were most effective when associated with activities of groups and organizations already present.

Hospitals and Medical Care

A recent report⁸ outlines Montana's hospital situation, the existing facilities and attendant problems. Measured in terms of hospital beds to population, Montana ranks high in comparison with most other states, but certain areas, particularly those which are predominantly rural, need additional facilities or a relocation of existing facilities. Many of the hospitals, even the larger ones, are reported to be in buildings which should be abandoned because they are very old and not fire-resistant. Thirty out of a total of 65 general hospitals have a normal capacity of fewer than 25 beds which is too small for economical operation. A statewide plan is needed as a guide for hospital location and distribution before construction is begun. The adequate financing of operation is even more important than the financing of construction. Problems of hospital administration include: "The need for establishing hospital standards and a system of inspection to get the services up to minimum and desired standards; the need for segregating the ambulatory aged from other hospital patients; the need for encouraging rural and urban cooperation in hospital matters; and the need

⁵ J. Allan Beegle and T. Lynn Smith. *Differential fertility in Louisiana*. La. Expt. Sta. Bul. 403. 44 pp. University, June 1946.

⁶ Harold F. Kaufman and Lois C. Kaufman. *Toward the stabilization and enrichment of a forest community*. 95 pp. Univ. of Montana in cooperation with the U. S. Forest Service, Region I. Missoula, Mont. 1946.

⁷ Charles R. Hoffer. *Social organization in relation to Extension Service*. Mich. Agr. Expt. Sta. Special Bul. 338. 31 pp. East Lansing, Aug. 1946.

⁸ Carl F. Kraenzel. *The hospitals of Montana*. Mont. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 438. 31 pp. Bozeman, Oct. 1946.

for bringing contract payments for medical care into the line with private payments, and nearer actual cost." The author lists State legislation needed to obtain the most effective care from existing and proposed hospital facilities.

Miscellaneous

In view of the widespread discussion of the limitation on the size of holdings in Federal Reclamation Projects, the Reclamation Service has made a survey on landownership on its projects." Project records for 1946 were used to determine the distribution of holdings by size of irrigable acreages and total acreages, and the amount of excess acreage in violation was estimated for a number of projects. The report includes the results of that analysis, a summary of the limitation on land for which water may be supplied under the Reclamation laws, and a historical summary of Reclamation law and policy with respect to excess land limitation. The latter includes a brief account of measures directed toward the same end which are in effect in other countries.

The study, *Relationships between cooperative associations serving farmers in five Ohio counties*⁹, is an inquiry into the possibilities of greater coordination of effort between cooperatives serving rural people in Ohio. The directors and a 10 per cent sample of the membership of the 55 cooperatives in five Ohio counties were studied by personal visitation, circulation of questionnaire, and by correspondence. Included were 30 marketing and purchasing organizations (livestock, grain and farm supplies, dairy, wool, and poultry) and 25 service cooperatives (farm loan and rural electric associations, insurance, and refrigerated locker organizations).

⁹ U. S. Dept. of the Interior. Bur. of Reclamation. *Landownership survey on Federal Reclamation Projects*. 109 pp. Washington, D. C. 1946.

¹⁰ George F. Henning and L. B. Mann. *Relationships between cooperative organizations serving farmers in five Ohio counties*. Ohio Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 660. 43 pp. Wooster, Mar. 1946.

The report discusses the possibilities for operating relationships between cooperatives and the attitudes of members toward cooperation. Most of the members were satisfied with the service of their cooperatives during war time. For the post-war development of their cooperatives a prominent place in member attitudes is given to need for expansion into other fields especially such services as group hospitalization, medicine, and veterinary services; soil testing; banking and burial associations; and expansion of educational programs. The study includes a brief historical review of the cooperative movement in Ohio.

A study of *Postwar revenues for rural public services in Maryland*¹¹ was made in order "(1) To examine the adequacy of State and local tax resources; (2) To review basic principles and policies underlying tax support of major rural governmental services, and (3) To suggest changes in law or policy which will produce more equitable taxation and result in more comparable public services for rural people." Public education, highways, and public welfare account for the major part of State and local expenditures. Their proper functioning depends upon a State policy which results in balancing the needs of each and levying and distributing taxes for their support. The authors recommend (1) Improvements in procedure, technique, and policy in determining each taxpayer's share of tax responsibility; (2) More rigid State policy in granting tax levy and exemption powers to local governments, and (3) Readjustments in tax sharing relationship between the State and local governments so that more equal services may be provided rural people under equality of tax burdens. Government credit should be used only for public improvements which are planned carefully to benefit the greatest number at the least possible cost.

¹¹ W. P. Walker and S. H. DeVault. *Postwar revenues for rural public services in Maryland*. Md. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. A41. 154 pp. College Park, Jan. 1946.

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Book Reviews

Edited by Howard W. Beers

Population in Modern China. By Ta Chen.
Chicago: University of Chicago Press,
1946. Pp. ix + 126. \$2.50

For many years Ta Chen has been a student of social conditions and social problems in China. He is the social and intellectual father of many of the younger generation of China's social scientists. As such he stands between the new generation and the old, emotionally closer than they to both traditional China and the ideology of Sun Yat Sen, yet trained and experienced in objective research. His writings should be viewed against this mixed background in the personality and professional training of the man. In *Population in Modern China*, the mixture is evident.

Population in Modern China is not a balanced book, as those who have read it in the *American Journal of Sociology* last July will quickly recognize. Some parts are primarily statistical with little social interpretation and some parts are quite the reverse. The book served the double purpose of providing a very brief general survey of the present state of knowledge concerning population in China and of presenting the findings of a particular pair of population censuses made during the war period in Yunnan (in Kunming and its vicinity). The writer jumps from a balanced consideration of different areas to special emphasis on the Yunnan situation, and he goes into undue detail with respect to particular wartime situations without discriminating between those that may prove of more enduring significance and those that were of only momentary interest. These lacks of balance are aesthetically disturbing, but they need not detract from the useful contributions of the book. They are due in part to the nature of the data as well as the inclinations of the author.

Dr. Chen begins with a brief, incomplete, and in some respects superficial summary and evaluation of the historical population

data and the beginnings of modern demography in China. As a point of departure these summaries are extremely useful, and the analysis seems to be judicious and objective as far as it goes. Following these brief statements, Dr. Chen draws on the new studies, some of them heretofore unpublished or available only in Chinese, to sketch some of the major characteristics of the composition of the population and of birth, death and marriage rates. There is very little social interpretation in these chapters; the emphasis is on comparisons and evaluations of the reliability of the various sources of statistical information.

Then come two chapters, on occupations and migrations, in which the analysis is more social than statistical and emphasis is on the situation in the vicinity of Kunming. This is a reflection of both the paucity of data on these subjects and the special interests of the author.

The contrast between Ta Chen's treatment of occupations in modern China and the analysis of occupations included in the exploratory study of *China's National Income, 1931-36*, by Ta-Chung Liu is striking.

Readers who are interested in an estimate of the quantitative balance among occupational groups in China would find no guidance in *Population Problems of Modern China*. There is much of value in Ta Chen's analysis of occupations, however. His discussions of the socio-economic significance of occupational categories and the types of change in process refer to the entire country, and in general his analysis is supported by the more intensive sociological studies of Hsiao Tung Fei and other leading Chinese sociologists.

Most of the discussion of migrations focuses on the social impact of the war migrations in to the vicinity of Kunming. This is an exceedingly interesting subject, and one of real significance for the future. Moreover, there is good reason to assume

that in this respect Ta Chen's interpretations are reliable. However, the comments concerning general long-run migrations and possibilities of settlement in the frontier areas of the Northwest are surprising.

Migration has been one of Ta Chen's major interests over his long life of social study. Nevertheless, the preponderance of evidence available to this reviewer leads her to seriously question the position that migration into the Northwest offers real opportunities for China's population, or even that any large increase of population there would be socially or economically desirable. Ta Chen's thesis needs more documentation.

The final chapter, on Population Policy, is a disappointment. It is confined almost wholly to short presentations of traditional emphasis on large numbers of children, of the views of Sun Yat Sen on the subject of population policy, and of the largely impractical musings of the official Committee for the Study of Population Policy. The author contributes nothing from his own thinking.

All in all, *Population Problems in Modern China* is a convenient source of information on the small modern population censuses. The social analysis included is of value primarily to persons who have little knowledge of China to start with, although the discussion of conditions in the vicinity of Kunming provides a net addition to understanding of the impact of the war on the Southwest.

MARY JEAN BOWMAN

Lexington, Kentucky.

Rural Amenities. By Rural Reconstruction Commission. Canberra, Australia. Ministry of Post-War Reconstruction, 1945. Pp. 92.

This is the seventh of a remarkable series of reports issued by the Commission, some of which have been previously reviewed in *Rural Sociology*. Rural amenities are defined as housing, education, water supplies, telephone and health services, electrification. The report also considers country towns in their relation to agriculture and the farming population.

It is a realistic document. A typical illustration of this is in the section on electrification. Costs here are carefully estimated from capital expense for installation to the price of various pieces of equipment. Savings are then also estimated and cost of current calculated at various levels from two pence (1.35 cents) per k.w.h. to one shilling (16.5 cents). On this basis the Commission arrives at conclusions as to what farms of certain size and income groups can afford of electrical service and equipment and how large a proportion cannot hope to have it.

The section on education contains an excellent analysis of the pros and cons, advantages and disadvantages, of school consolidation but decides in favor of it in the average case. Many other excellent suggestions are given. The objective of the proposals is to produce the kind of citizens Australia needs as a nation and as a member of the United Nations. This viewpoint carries over into the discussion of rural adult education and the Extension Service. The Commission says: "*Technical capacity, however, is not the only educational need if our farmers and their wives are to play an effective part in a world of ever-expanding horizons. A wide general knowledge is also desirable. Experience since the last war has emphasized the inter-dependence of agriculture in all countries; it follows that if world agricultural problems are to be solved satisfactorily, the farmer of the future must be provided with an education which will enable him to form an intelligent understanding of the problems of his counterparts in other countries. This will never be achieved without broad education which will guide him to assess problems applying not only directly to himself and his immediate environment, but to people similarly situated in other parts of the world.*"

The chapter on Housing is based on surveys of over six thousand farm homes. On the basis of this the Commission sets up minimum standards. The Commission then says: "*Housing standards on farms could be improved if capital for reasonable improvements were available at relatively low*

rates of interest. In the event of the adoption of this procedure for houses in the cities, there would be every reason why the principle should be extended to the country. It is true that houses on farms are not normally detachable from those farms, and consequently are a less fluid form of investment. This difficulty can be overcome by making a loan for housing improvements, up to a given standard, a first charge on the property itself. This would not be unjust to those who advanced the original loan on the property because in raising the housing standard that property has been enhanced in value."

"... It would be practicable to insist on minimum standards for the houses of employees or of tenants of farms which are let under lease, other than perpetual or other Crown leases. Similarly it would be practicable to ensure that any sale of a farm property would be invalid unless the new owner agreed to bring the houses on the property up to the minimum standard..."

With respect to health, the Commission takes the point of view that lacks in rural medical care result in economic wastage Australia cannot afford. Here as elsewhere the argument is that the cost of improvement will produce an economic profit to the nation and is therefore supportable. In this, as in some other particulars, the Commission is far more realistic than our own Land Grant College Post-War Policy Committee.

In a long chapter the Commission considers the place of towns and villages in rural society. It accepts unreservedly the position that rural Australia is one, that farm and rural non-farm must be considered as a unit by all concerned, whether in or out of government. They are, as it were, two sides of the same coin, different but inseparable.

Two other points of view are of interest:

1. The Commission again and again proposes that whatever the function of the state or federal governments with respect to any activity, the working out of the plans in the local community should be in the hands of local leaders, serving on com-

mittees of their own or as co-opted members of committees of the local authority.

2. "... it is useless to provide additional amenities for people who do not feel the need for them; and although the expenditure of money in a district will gratify some persons because it means a temporary increase in business, yet money spent in providing buildings and facilities which people will not use is more or less wasted. People value most that for which they have had to strive. Every additional amenity in a district should therefore come as a result of efforts in that district, and should be maintained by such efforts. The Government's part in developing districts should largely be to ensure—

- (a) a system of local government which encourages all responsible citizens to play their part in determining local policy;
- (b) that some advice on planning and development of centres and their amenities is available;
- (c) that the attention of the public is continually drawn to the improvements which could be made and the amenities which could be provided if popular support were present;
- (d) financial assistance by loans so that communities which have the desire to improve conditions within their boundaries are not hindered by lack of available capital or rating power;
- (e) that civic responsibilities and the mechanism of local government are suitably taught in all schools."

EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER

Columbia University.

The Co-Operative Movement and Present-Day Problems. By the International Labor Office. Montreal Canada: The International Labor Office, 1945. Pp. iii + 232. \$1.00.

This study of the role of cooperative organization in post-war rehabilitation cannot properly be understood or used apart from an earlier volume dealing with post-war relief (*Cooperative Organization and Post-War Relief*, also by the International

Labor Office) which contains a much more analytical and theoretical treatment of principles and methods, forms and interpretations. Both studies present a general survey of the cooperative movement with some overlapping of statistical material, but the volume under review deals more conclusively with the overall problem of fundamental reconstruction of war-torn lands through the use of cooperative technique. Taken together these two books constitute an impressive over-view of one of the most creative and heartening developments civilized man has achieved.

In the first treatise the editors remark on the fact that this world-wide movement, involving in 1937 over 810,000 associations and over 143,000,000 members, has been relatively unnoticed by the sociologists. And yet it grows by the development of personality, and by forms of association which depend on all the various types of factors making for the growth of a more functional society.

In both volumes there is a strong emphasis on the inseparability of cooperation and education, but little information is revealed about the underlying socio-cultural forces which are needed not only to shape an educational program but also to define the nature and scope of organization. Recognition of these forces is given, however, by such words as "affinities" or "nature of their common needs".

To the serious student of the movement it must come as a fresh surprise to learn of the extent of cooperative penetration within the older economic order, and the multitudinous forms it has taken. One reads of 1,000 miles of cooperative pipeline with nine refineries and 360 producing oil wells in the U. S. A. Considerable cooperative transport, including narrow gauge railways, exists in Mexico. Czechoslovakia possesses one of the largest cooperative electric power plants in Central Europe. Cooperative forest fire insurance maintains its own fire prevention posts in Norway. A Quebec fishermen's cooperative with some public assistance rescued the fisher-

man from powerful companies which were paying them from one-fifth to one-tenth the price finally charged consumers. There seem to be few economic functions not being successfully performed somewhere in the world by cooperative techniques.

Perhaps the principle of expansion inherent in the cooperative idea is leading to the most impressive achievement of all, that of direct inter-cooperative relations. The ideas inherent in the primary association seem to lead to unremitting effort to effect a federative structure which constitutes a plan, if you will, of local, regional, national, and international relations. This characteristic makes of cooperation a movement in the strictest sense of the term.

There is a need, of course, for a much more penetrating study than the I. L. O. has so far accomplished. We need to know more accurately what the impact of the war has meant to cooperatives in war-desolated countries, and indeed, all others. Father Ligutti has given us elsewhere a good picture of the post-war situation in Italy but what has happened to a large pre-war movement in Germany? What, for example, has become of its 4,800 rural electric supply cooperatives with a membership of over 415,000? What remnants of organization remain, if any? What impact did national socialism have on cooperative processes? Have cooperators withstood demoralization better than non-cooperators? And can these and other types of associations be utilized in the gigantic tasks of reconstruction?

There are minor errors to be found in these studies, such as classifying consumer's societies as "urban or industrial", true of Britain or Sweden, but untrue of Denmark or the United States. However, the major errors belong to us. As a tool for world rehabilitation we need a great literature on the sociology of cooperation, and there are too few signs that a new interest is pointing in that direction.

JOHN BARTON

University of Wisconsin.

When Peoples Meet. Edited by Alan Locke and Bernhard J. Stern. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1946. Pp. xii + 825. \$3.75.

This comprehensive compendium on human relationships was edited by two well-known American scholars, one a philosopher and the other a sociologist. The editors have assembled the writings of 85 eminent scholars from this and other countries, some living, some dead, who constitute a veritable "Who's Who" in this field. Some of the contributions are brief excerpts, while others are more extended articles or chapters from the writings of these scholars.

The subject-matter of the book is arranged in sixteen chapters. Each chapter is introduced by a succinct and scholarly summary by the editors, followed by the contributions of the various authors. The chapters are grouped into five parts, as follows: *Part I*, Culture Contact and the Growth of Civilization; *Part II*, Varieties of Culture Conflict; *Part III*, The Ways of Dominant Peoples: Devices of Power; *Part IV*, The Ways of Submerged Peoples: Tactics of Survival and Counter-assertion; and *Part V*, The Contemporary Scene in Intercultural Relations. The first four parts deal largely with the essential nature of human culture, in which culture patterns, culture exchange, political and military power, economic and social conditions, race, religion, and other factors have figured. *Part V*, focuses attention upon the contemporary scene. Here imperialism is considered, as exemplified by certain countries in Europe, Asia and Africa, and minority issues in American democracy are treated, especially the race relations problems of the World War II period in which Negroes, Japanese, Semites and Indians are involved. This section of the book also deals realistically with the fate of dislocated peoples resulting from the war, the crisis among colonial peoples in their strife toward nationality, and the formulation of sane and humane policies for dealing with minorities within existing forms of government.

The limits of a brief review will not per-

mit a critical examination of each of the sixteen chapters, much less of the contributions of each of the 85 contributors. For the most part, however, the treatment is historical and descriptive, presenting the conclusions of the scholars quoted. While this treatment, under the circumstances, is probably justified, some scholars might wish for the presentation of more experimental and research evidence than is usually given.

Some critics also might question whether a rounded presentation had been made of certain situations. For example, one author describes, obviously with approval, how the Soviet Government of Russia had "solved" ethnic and other minority group problems by dissociating national statehood from racial and other minority situations, so that within the Soviet Union minor nationality groups were permitted regional autonomy as to language, religion, and other cultural values. However, only slight mention is made of the show of totalitarian power and intrigue by the Soviet Government in bringing into its orbit a number of satellite peoples surrounding Russia, and nothing is said about the wholesale "liquidations" by firing squads of certain military and other disturbing minority elements. And hostility of the Soviets toward the Roman Catholic Church within the Soviet Union and satellite states is ignored. If this section had been written in the past few post-war months, such omissions probably would not have occurred. Likewise, one author, in describing minority reactions and counter-assertions in contemporary India, as related to the rise of Indian nationalism, seemed more intent on condemning the British than in explaining, factually and objectively, how the caste system, the diversity of languages, the ignorance and the poverty of the masses, fratricidal conflicts between Moslems and Hindus, and other conditions indigenous to India have prevented the people from voluntarily exercising their traditional abilities toward the solution of their own nationalistic problems. The same sort of criticism, perhaps, might be directed upon other authors who presented the case of so-called backward societies. However, on

the whole, the treatment of the various cultures and problems that emerge *When Peoples Meet*, has been objective, fair, and scholarly.

This book will be useful to many sorts of readers. Scholars in the various social sciences will find it helpful in breaking down the narrow confines into which subject-matter specialists so often drift. While sound scholarship undoubtedly requires specialization in some limited field of human interest, at least some knowledge of the relatedness of various interests is equally important. This treatise will find a place of usefulness as a book of general reference or "readings" by college classes in social psychology, cultural anthropology, sociology, and other social sciences. The academic literary style employed by the authors will make the book difficult reading for younger students, but college upperclassmen and graduate students should be able to read it with ease. The legislator, the diplomat, the missionary, the international banker and tradesman, and even the alert citizen will find this book useful in studying world relationships and in evaluating the tangle of facts and emotions involved in the contemporary problems of race and culture.

J. L. HYPES

Storrs, Connecticut.

The People Look at Radio. By Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Harry Field. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1946. Pp. ix + 158. \$2.50

Things have been happening in the field of radio research since April 10, 1945, when the Federal Communications Commission announced a new policy "... of more detailed review of broadcast station performance when passing upon applications for license renewals" to make more certain that "public interest, convenience, and necessity" were being served. Accordingly, the rural sociologist interested in this field should be familiar not only with the book which is the subject of this review but with the Federal Communications Commission's famous

"blue book", *Public Service Responsibility Of Broadcast Licenses* (Washington, D. C.: March 7, 1946), quoted above and with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics study, *Attitudes of Rural People Toward Radio Service* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Agriculture, January, 1946).

Just as the preliminary results appeared from the BAE study, in November, 1945, the National Association of Broadcasters commissioned The National Opinion Research Center, at the University of Denver, to conduct a national sample study of adults' attitudes toward, and opinions and information regarding, radio. "The object was to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the radio industry, to ascertain where radio stands with the public, in order to blueprint a sound plan of action for the future of broadcasting." (P. vii) What constitute the NAB's criteria of "soundness" for a plan of action are not pointed out.

Subsequently the Bureau of Applied Social Research, of Columbia University, "was asked to cooperate in the analysis and interpretation of the findings of the survey." Additional prestige is lent the study by the fact that the University of North Carolina Press accepted it for publication. In spite of its three-fold academic sponsorship, the book taken as a whole is a curious combination, first, of special pleading aimed at the general reader on behalf of radio as we know it, and, second, cautious criticism coupled with cagey advice directed at the radio industry itself. The net result is the impression of an expert and subtle job of whitewashing contemporary American radio's more obvious defects.

Space does not permit a detailed documentation of this impression. But, for example, one hardly knows whether to laugh or tear his hair when the text, with a straight face, maintains that broadcasters themselves can be trusted to see to it that radio advertising observes the canons of good taste on these grounds: "They are probably so well representative of the American public that they share its repressions and anxieties in just the right proportions." (P. 35)

Lazarsfeld presents as his most significant conclusion that "... the large majority of the people in this country are pleased with radio as it is." (Pp. ix. Italics added) This conclusion seems hardly warranted in the light of various data presented in this study itself. For instance, the text asserts that "Probing for attitudes toward radio commercials in three different ways seems to confirm the fact that *about a third of the radio listening public is anti-advertising.*" (P. 17. Italics added) But Dr. Lazarsfeld devaluates "the voice of the critical minority", even though it includes one listener in three, because in his opinion they are the kind of people who "write letters to editors" and "participate in discussions in women's clubs". Such belittling of the most articulate third of our society by one of radio's most eminent students is frankly disappointing.

With one often repeated exhortation this reviewer is in hearty agreement: a plea for more and better radio research. But the question remains, who should do such research for whom? If "no man can serve two masters" it is hard to see how university social research in controversial applied fields can be done primarily in the interest of the general welfare and at the same time primarily for some trade association, business establishment, or other profit-making private employer.

EDGAR A. SCHULER

Michigan State College.

The South Carolina Rice Plantation. By J. H. Easterby. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. xxi + 478. \$5.00.

Well chosen research techniques, persistence and good judgment in the collection of data, an interesting subject and logical presentation combine to make this book of more than usual interest.

Employing an historical approach the author has classified the letters and papers of the Robert F. W. Allston family, one of the largest rice planters in the Georgetown district of South Carolina, during the period

at which rice production was at its peak. The documents include personal and business letters of the planter and his family, manager's reports, lists of slaves, slave bills of sale, account books, doctor's bills, orders for supplies, diaries, etc. They begin in 1819 with the efforts of Allston's widowed mother to manage the rice plantations left by her husband, continue through the expanding operation of her son Robert who, at one time controlled seven plantations, and end in 1868 with the successful attempt of Robert's widow to prevent the bankruptcy of the estate following the Civil War.

Realizing that much has already been written on the general subject, the author justifiably points out that existing publications actually give little detailed information concerning plantation organization, supervision, performance of labor, methods of cultivation, marketing and financial returns. The genius of this book inheres not only in its detail but also in the candor and freedom with which these details, however homely, are stated. This type of material is indeed refreshing.

For the most part the documents are presented exactly as originally written—including the frequent grammatical errors. There is little or no moralizing. Much is included that would scarcely have come to light had it not been written on the spot as a part of a functioning plantation. The following item in the routine report of an overseer, for example, might well have been "edited out" had the record been written for other purposes:

"S (Saturday) 12
Give people (holiday)
Frank sheared sheep this week
Flogged for howing corn bad,
Fanny 12 lashes, Sylvia 12, Monday 12, N. Phoebe 12, Susanna 12,"

Or, for example, the following from a slave letter to his former mistress which for clarity is invaluable:

"My Dear Mistress
I have been in this city about three years and belong, at present, to Mr. Saml Jaques, merchant. I

was sold for \$1900.00. He is remarkably kind. . . but still my mind is always dwelling on home, relations, and friends. . . as times now are, I suppose I may be purchased for 10 or \$11 hundred dollars. If you my Dear Mistress, can buy me, how happy I would be."

The book is well arranged and indexed. The first forty pages give the background of the district and general statements regarding life. Next, comprising nearly two hundred pages, the family letters are arranged chronologically. Following this are nearly two hundred more pages of documents classified under the headings: (1) Overseers' Reports, (2) Slave Documents, (3) Factors' Correspondence, (4) Miscellany. It is unfortunate, though largely unavoidable due to the nature of the data, that a larger proportion of the materials could not be classified under specific subject matter headings.

Apart from its general readability and its power to transport the reader into the intimacies of plantation life, this book should have wide use as a source reference. It is replete with farm management details. Reports of the overseers, however, are concerned not only with management, finance and land use but with health, food, clothing and the everyday problems of the slaves. Anyone wishing to get an intimate view of all phases of plantation organization of this period, including problems of the owners as well as those of laborers, will do well to read this book.

HAROLD HOFFSOMMER.

University of Maryland.

Scientific Man Vs. Power Politics. By Hans J. Morgenthau. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. ix + 244. \$3.00.

Professor Morgenthau finds the reason for this century's failure to solve its social problems in the prevailing philosophy (Rationalism, Liberalism, Scientism) which infects all shades of modern thought. The nature, origins, and results of misconcep-

tions which most social scientists and citizens have about the nature of man, the world and "reason itself" is the subject of his book. He concentrates on picturing our "intellectual confusion, moral blindness, and political decay" (P. 10), but also proposes "to indicate those intellectual and moral faculties of man to which alone the problems . . . will yield" (P. vi.)

The author's purpose is sincere, his reading wide, his style literary and vigorous. For this reviewer, however, the argument is confusing and unconvincing. It is asserted that most of us think and act on the basis of the false assumptions: that man is rational — i.e. capable of understanding, through reason, himself and his world and of acting on the basis thereof; that the world operates according to simple, rational, abstract laws and is thus able to be controlled by men; and that by logical and rational thinking, excluding moral norms, it is possible to reach valid and useful conclusions. Instead, human behavior is affected by emotional and irrational factors; the social world is concrete, complex, with incalculable factors; selfishness and lust for power are ubiquitous and inevitable; statistical probability rather than certainty is the nature of social order; and the thinking of scientists themselves is influenced by pressures from the social world and their own emotions. Thus the attempt to reduce social problems to scientific problems, to be solved by amassing facts that men may know and act reasonably, is certain failure since political realities are thereby ignored.

Sociologists are familiar with most of the author's own ideas and accept many, despite his contention to the contrary. Is it true, however, that a rational or scientific approach has dominated attempts to solve social problems? Exception may also be taken to: the use of abstract concepts such as Wisdom, True Statecraft, Will to Power, Eternal Laws; the use of such ideal-typical constructs as Liberalism or Scientism as strawmen rather than tools for analysing concrete situations; a criticism of sociology for aping the older physical science in a search for the certainty of natural law

without citing Lundberg, or any living U. S. sociologist except Lynd; a criticism of political science for overlooking the emotional factors in political behavior without reference to Lasswell.

Finally, one looks in vain for any concrete description of the "intellectual and moral faculties" to which we should turn. The book ends with an eloquent and mystical plea for "true statecraft." The "key" to the "eternal laws" of man lies in the "wisdom" and "insight" of the "statesman" who is able to grasp "knowledge of a different order" from the "factual," "statistical" knowledge of "scientism," of the "social engineer." The statesman, aware of the tragic and "evil" fact that "lust for power" is universal and inevitable, "elevates his experiences into the universal laws of human nature" and is thus able to manipulate the concrete irrational pressures of a situation to choose a lesser rather than a greater evil. Science helps to "lighten the burden of living," but a "more-than-scientific man" is needed to ease the "burden of life."

MORTON KING, JR.

University of Mississippi.

A Study of Rural Society. By J. H. Kolb and Edmund deS. Brunner. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. xii + 717. \$4.50.

This is the third edition of Professors Kolb and Brunner's book which brings together the basic research in rural life with an interpretation and integration that few scholars have been able to achieve. The reviewer is impressed with the fact that this work, when studied with the two previous editions, charts as few books have the progress made in rural research. A careful examination of all three editions reveals that research in certain areas, particularly population and education, has been systematic and accumulative, making it possible to draw meaningful generalizations for the country as a whole. In other areas, such as the rural church, local government, group relations, rural health, and recreation,

there is need for more systematic research. In studying these three editions, one is impressed by the fact that with each edition, the authors have presented a more systematic analysis of rural life. Certainly this third edition makes a notable contribution toward the achievement of a scientific study of rural society.

In this last edition, the authors have tried painstakingly to revise it in keeping with the suggestions of hundreds of teachers who have used it in the colleges and universities. Some major changes therefore appear. The book itself is divided into four parts: Rural People—Their Distinguishing Characteristics; Making A Living in Rural Society; Group Relationships; Institutional Arrangements.

In the mind of the reviewer, the authors make their most substantial contribution in Parts III and IV, which deal with Group Relationships and Institutional Arrangements. This is no mere accident, for the field of research and experiences of the two authors is such that they can and do write these two units of the book with sympathetic understanding and firsthand knowledge of their subject.

The reviewer feels that there is good reason why Kolb and Brunner's book on Rural Society has become a standard text on the subject and why it has been commonly accepted as such by the colleges and universities of the United States. By most any yardstick, it is a scholarly piece of work which sticks close to basic research and fundamentals. Those who found the earlier editions to their liking will be highly pleased with this revision, and those who criticized the earlier editions will find this third edition so much improved as to rate almost as a new book.

If the reviewer has any overall criticism of the book, it is that the authors probably have included too much data, making it somewhat difficult for the undergraduate to sort out the less relevant material. But from the point of view of the teachers, particularly those who have not had firsthand experience in rural research and studies of

rural life, the inclusion of this vast amount of material is probably to their liking.

DOUGLAS ENSMINGER
Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Children of the Cumberland. By Claudia Lewis. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. xviii + 217. \$2.75.

Miss Lewis, in *Children of the Cumberland*, has given an interesting and detailed account of her experience as a teacher in a W.P.A. nursery school in the mountains of east Tennessee. For two years Miss Lewis lived with these people; shared their joys and sorrows and directed the learning of the three-year-olds through six in a nursery school. This book is about a group of children: a group typical of any rural area where economic living conditions are below average.

The merit of this book lies in Miss Lewis' unusual understanding of the development of children and in her unique skill of keeping anecdotal, daily records. From her records we know that she possessed a keen, sincere interest in the total development of every person as well as the children under her direction. She possessed a sound philosophy of progressive education as evidenced through her efforts to study the parents of each child, their background, their home life, their problems, resources and needs of the community and community living.

The comparisons which she makes continuously between the children of the Harriet Johnson Nursery School in New York and the children in the Summerville School in the mountains of east Tennessee are made through the examination of the factors which affect the behavior of the children in each situation. She shows, basically, that children are alike every place in common behavior but responses are affected by the environment in which the child lives.

From her own experiences with children under similar situations, as studied in this book, this reviewer disagrees with Miss Lewis as to the feeling of security of these children. Miss Lewis seems to think that they have no feeling of insecurity because

of home conditions, home life and inadequate living facilities. Even at a very early age children in the mountains become conscious of these inadequacies and develop a feeling of insecurity when they learn that some people live in better houses, wear better clothes, and ride in automobiles. The reviewer agrees with Miss Lewis' conclusion that the close companionship in their homes affords a security which, in many instances, will over-balance the feeling of insecurity of these children, but as a child grows older and as he becomes more conscious of his inadequate economic status this feeling of insecurity will increase.

I would like to make this comment: Miss Lewis observes the perfecting of a certain stroke in art by a child from the Summerville School at the age of 6½ years; while the child at the Harriet Johnson School effected the same stroke at the age of 4½. There are probably many factors involved—the degree of maturity in children (as pointed out so well by the author) but in making such comparisons why not think of the Harriet Johnson child in the same environment as the Summerville child and observe the reactions to his environment? At what age could the Harriet Johnson child harness a team of mules? Milk a cow? Walk a mile to the spring to get a pail of water, or accomplish any other of the many activities in which we find the Summerville children engaged at a very early age?

This is a delightful book—interestingly written and one which this reviewer recommends for any teacher in the rural areas to carefully read and study. It is challenging to workers in the Appalachian mountain areas because of the author's sincere efforts to unravel the children's responses. As we follow Miss Lewis in her teaching procedure, we are further convinced that children learn to do by doing and are concerned with their own environment. She employs truly democratic procedures in dealing with the children and guides them in group, democratic living.

MARIE R. TURNER

Jackson, Kentucky.

The Myth of the State. By Ernst Cassirer
New Haven: Yale University Press,
1946. Pp. xi + 303. \$3.75.

This book, completed a few days before Professor Cassirer's death, is a profound and timely contribution toward the understanding of one of the most important problems of contemporary society. "Perhaps the most important and the most alarming feature in (the) development of modern political thought is the appearance of a new power: the power of mythical thought." In order to understand the relation of myth to the development of the state, the author has given a penetrating analysis of the works of many of the outstanding political and social thinkers in the history of Western civilization, including those of Plato, Aristotle, Dante, Thomas Aquinas, Machiavelli, Hobbes, Carlyle, Gobineau and Hegel.

Sociologists and anthropologists, especially those interested in the field of social theory, will find this work of great interest. In order to properly understand the "origin, the character, and influence of our modern political myths", the author has addressed himself to the question of the nature of myth itself, a field that has been given extensive attention by the sociologist and the anthropologist. Many important theories regarding the origin and character of myth are examined and the conclusion reached that "in myth man begins to learn a new and strange art: the art of expressing, and that means of organizing, his most deeply rooted instincts, his hopes and fears." The chief problem that myth has been confronted with is that of death. Professor Cassirer concludes that it was primitive man's inability to reconcile himself to the fact of death and the destruction of his own personal existence "as an inevitable natural phenomenon" that led him to the construction of myths as a means of "explaining away" this fact of death.

The author has some penetrating insights into the function of myths but in his treatment of the subject in which he also considers religion and magic reference might have been made to the studies and

works of such men as Weber, Durkheim, Pareto and Parsons.

In his conclusion, Professor Cassirer points out the presence of many fantastic myths in our twentieth century political and social life and indicates the need for the discovery of and obedience to the laws of the social world if man is to master the world in which he lives.

This study is a demonstration of profound learning. Sociologists will welcome it.

REED H. BRADFORD

Brigham Young University.

Industry and Society. Edited by William F. Whyte. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp. vi + 211. \$2.50.

Six members of the Committee on Human Relations in Industry at the University of Chicago and two representatives of labor and industry have prepared for book publication a series of lectures around the general theme represented by the title of this symposium. If its own claims to consistency are excessive, the book nevertheless provides eight substantive papers conveniently housed and useful as samples of work currently called "industrial sociology."

Both the area and the interstitial lacunae of the studies are revealed by an enumeration of chapter titles, exclusive of introductory and concluding chapters prepared by the Committee. The papers include: "The Factory as a Social System" by Burleigh B. Gardner; "The Factory in the Community" by W. Lloyd Warner and J. O. Low; "Functions and Pathology of Status Systems in Formal Organizations" by Chester I. Barnard; "The Motivation of the Underprivileged Worker" by Allison Davis; "Race Relations in Industry" by Everett Cherrington Hughes; "When Workers and Customers Meet" by William Foote Whyte; "Role of Union Organization" by Mark Starr; "The Basis of Industrial Conflict" by Frederick H. Harbison. Of these papers, perhaps the most sociologically informed and informative are written by two non-sociologists, Barnard and Harbison. Although this documents the

value of cooperative scholarship, it also suggests that industrial sociology must be first of all sociology. Perhaps this may be pointed up by selection of one or two points for more detailed comment than a review affords for the book as a whole.

The introductory chapter asserts, "To this research the committee brings a well-integrated point of view and methodology. We see the society and any of its segments, whether a neighborhood, a factory, or a work group, as having a social structure comprised of the relations among individuals." (P. 3) This is a point of view that is defensible in general, but it needs analytical tools and theoretical or systematic knowledge to assess the significance of "interviews and observation," and to derive predictive principles. The danger lies in the particularist study, which without comparative analysis cannot distinguish the common from the unique and incidental, and which in the very attempt to describe a particular factory or community in detail, may miss some of the more important issues. "Observation and interview," far from serving as a well-integrated methodology, provide no methodology at all. This would seem to be equally true in rural and in industrial sociology.

In this same connection, Burleigh B. Gardner, in discussing informal organization, seems to arrive at the conclusion that unofficial structures are to be expected in general, but that they represent random deviant behavior. Closer comparative analysis reveals substantial predictability of situation, form, and behavior, and indeed adequate management of factories and unions involves precisely this degree of predictability.

As a final comment verging on the capacious, it may be noted that the importance of clique structures is illustrated by the brief "Working Bibliography," which is almost wholly confined to the writings of members of the Committee and their previous associates at the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration.

WILBERT E. MOORE

Princeton University.

Outline of American Rural Sociology. By Carle C. Zimmerman. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Phillips Book Store, 1946. Pp. 55. \$1.75.

This is a student's outline with suggested readings for "... an understanding of American agrarianism and rural life."

(P. i) There are six main sections covering major periods of rural development. Americans have been said to lack a sense of history, and their sociology has sometimes seemed to bear out the allegation. Zimmerman's *Outline* is emphatically historical and concrete rather than generalizing and abstract. The monograph is explicitly said to include approaches from a variety of social sciences; the fact that some readers may regard it as mainly history rather than sociology will reflect its emphasis on "a valid set of principles applicable to a definitely located historical culture." (P. 3) Zimmerman outlines six stages in American agrarianism: (1) European backgrounds; (2) colonial period, (3) Manifest Destiny period, (4) the Gilded Age (Civil War to World War I), (5) decay of the commercial-international systems, (6) rise of a "permanent" continental agrarianism (now under way).

One of the major theses of the work is that we have now entered a period of "permanent continental agrarianism", marked by conservation, government regulation, tendencies toward autocracy rather than international capitalism, emphasis upon social welfare rather than purely upon production and profits, part-time farming as a way of life, and a "positive population policy". This is interpreted as an outgrowth of the "destruction of international capitalism and export trade in agriculture" in the period of World War I through World War II. There are four appendices which treat such varied topics as subsistence homesteads, population problems, rural health, and—in one section—"parity price, Engel's law, and the Marxian theory of progress."

The outline is studded with insights and provocative interpretations which pose many challenges for research and critical

thinking. Its selected bibliography will be invaluable to those who wish to give historical perspective to their rural sociology. Readers will find an interpretation of both the Revolution and the Civil War in terms of certain crucial agrarian situations of those periods. On a similar plane of broad interpretation there is an analysis of "immanent" factors in the breakdown of the Gilded Age of capitalistic exploitation in our agriculture. ("The basic idea is that 'pure' capitalism in agriculture never worked very well nor could, in America, work for more than a short period because of a set of temporary and disappearing historical conditions.") (P. 31)

To this reviewer, the actual analysis presented in this work does not seem to require the superstructure of Hegelian terminology which it carries. Those who are allergic to the vocabulary of thesis-antithesis-synthesis should not, however, allow this to divert them from the real meat of the study. Much the same thing can be said of the frequent and vigorous policy judgments, involving major choices of values, which are not explicitly distinguished from facts and analyses as such. The work should be read with these considerations in mind; it should by all means be read.

ROBIN M. WILLIAMS, JR.

Cornell University.

Labor Unionism in American Agriculture.

By United States Department of Labor.
Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. x + 457. \$.70.

Here is a book that everyone who pretends to be familiar with rural socio-economic conditions should read. It is the result of careful research and is well documented.

Although the book is a factual report its author sees the facts with which he deals in their relationship to one another and presents them in a readable and interesting manner. The first few chapters point out how, originally, except in the plantation areas, farm laborers were neighbors' children and were treated by their employers as

members of their own families. The tradition of this idyllic relationship, the author asserts, still survives and militates against a realistic approach to the study of agricultural labor problems. The growth of a low-status, mobile and often disfranchised farm labor class evolved with the commercialization of agriculture and reached its most complete development where mass production farming is most highly practiced. This class, particularly in the areas of high industrialization of agriculture, has frequently been composed predominantly of non-whites or of people of foreign nativity. As a consequence, when the general public learned of riots and labor disturbances it assumed that they were the result of race conflicts and for a long time failed to manifest any interest in conditions of agricultural employment which sorely needed adjustment.

This book presents a historical account of the efforts of agricultural laborers to better their conditions by means of unionization and of the support and leadership supplied by the major labor organizations. These efforts, in general, have lacked success. This applies particularly in relation to those who work in the fields, in contrast to those who work in canning and other food processing factories. The outstanding obstacles that militate against successfully unionizing field laborers are: (1) their intense mobility and (2) the changing personnel of the farm labor class.

The book contains tables which show the numbers of agricultural labor strikes by states, by crops, and in California by counties: it reports the issues involved, classifies and discusses them. The sources of labor unrest among agricultural workers are rather adequately treated; employers' organizations and their functions are described; many concrete instances of employer-employee conflict are cited and reports of efforts to settle or prohibit them are presented.

In a concluding six-page chapter the author suggests that the absence of strikes and other labor difficulties in agriculture since 1939 is not due to the evolution of

amicable ways of settling conflicts, nor to the removal of the factors which produce them. Rather, it has been due to the scarcity of workers in this industry which lost heavily to more lucrative forms of employment during the war period. The author also suggests that if ever agricultural labor is to receive wages and working conditions that compare favorably with those in other industries the public must reconcile itself to paying higher prices than it has paid in the past for many of its staple foods.

The book ends with 44 pages of appendices, the longest of which, "A," is a bibliography of 12 pages.

S. C. RATCLIFFE

Illinois Wesleyan University.

Success on The Small Farm. By Haydn S. Pearson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946. Pp. xi + 285. \$2.50.

This book contains much good information and advice, and might be described as one man's formula for achieving success on the 10 or 12-acre farm in the Northeast which deals in high-priced specialty crops. But the book has a limited value, as it is largely directed toward non-farm people who want to go into farming. There is an incompatibility between Mr. Pearson's subject—the specialty farm—and the audience to which he addresses himself.

Specialty farming is a highly skilled and complex occupation and one that calls for a high degree of technical knowledge and managerial ability. Moreover, if specialty crops are to bring high prices they must be of premium quality, a factor that places additional demands upon the experience, capability and resources of the farmer.

Ample financial reserves for use in hedging against poor years are also needed in farming which concentrates on the production of the highly speculative and perishable commodities. Prices of specialty crops are unstable, and there is generally a high degree of risk attached to such enterprises. Both the financial and the managerial requirements are hardly of the character that

could be met by "the beginner who has limited capital and (who) must make the safest and most efficient start."

The profit objective on which Mr. Pearson predicates his recommendations is a net cash income of between \$2,000 and \$3,000 a year. The high-priced specialty crops he suggests to reach this goal are: strawberries, asparagus, muskmelons, sweet corn, squashes, grapes and peaches. Separate chapters are devoted to each of these crops in which brief information is given on soil preparation, fertilization, planting, cultivation and harvest.

To further enhance the possibility of reaching the net cash income which the author considers desirable, he recommends that the producer of these crops sell them at retail to consumers. The major retail outlet discussed is the roadside stand, and a chapter is given over to a number of suggestions on how to make this outlet successful. It is questionable whether the roadside stand deserves the emphasis Mr. Pearson places on it. While some farmers—many of them marginal operators—have benefited from sales through these stands, the needs of a far greater number of farmers are successfully being met through production and marketing cooperatives.

A subordinate part of the book is devoted to a discussion of the small dairy farm and a few supplementary enterprises. Chapters dealing with the general aspects of irrigation, soil improvement, fertilization and power requirements are also included.

For all of the criticisms that can be made of his book, it should be noted that Mr. Pearson presents his information in an interesting and readable form. Yet it is disappointing to think that the author's popular treatment of his subject may encourage urban people to think there is great opportunity for them in specialty crop farming. Any book that denies such readers a full accounting of the "facts of life" in agriculture is unwittingly rendering them a disservice.

R. W. HUDGINS

Washington, D. C.

Color Blind. By Margaret Halsey. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1946. Pp 164. \$2.50

This little book of 164 pages, a current best seller, is closer to being a good sociological study in race relations than are a good many self-styled "studies" of the same problem. The importance of the book is two-fold. First, the observations and analyses are grounded in empirical data since the author writes of her experiences as a worker in a war-time canteen in which a no-discrimination policy was enforced. Second, the absence of an abstruse professional terminology allows the writer to present her insights in a fortunately simple yet meaningful style.

The book consists of 12 racy and cogently written chapters: Color Conscience, Color Conscious, "Trouble", Color Line and Stag Line, Southern Discomfort, "Start with the Learner Where He Is," Upon from Apathy, Sex, Jealousy and the Negro, "Would You Like Your Daughter to Marry One?", The Care and Feeding of Bigots, The Solid South and the Frozen North, "Little Drops of Water, Little Grains of Sand".

The interracial canteen where the author collected her material served as a laboratory in which sound principles of collective behavior were put into action. For instance, the band was instructed to start playing "The Star Spangled Banner" whenever there was evidence of any trouble. The servicemen present would naturally jump to attention at the first notes of the national anthem. In the four years of activity of the canteen, there was only one incident. A white marine tried to pull a Negro sailor away from the white girl with whom he was dancing. The author comments, "For us, the trouble, so often envisioned by those of little faith, turned out to be purely imaginary." Anger shown by Southerners from time to time was directed not so much against the Negroes who were there as against the whites who had invited them.

The main thesis of the book is that race prejudice gains momentum through two forces: one, the sexual bogey, and the other,

the economic factor of cheap labor. The greater part of the arguments presented appear plausible and often demonstrable. But just as it is true of any determinism, too great an emphasis on one or two causal factors in a complex area of life begins to appear as an oversimplification. This point is almost reached in *Color Blind* when the author overstates the white man's sexual jealousy and the great discipline which civilized living imposes upon whites.

Among the solutions Miss Halsey considers to the race problem is a planned northward migration of Negroes from the highly concentrated Negro areas of the South. This northward migration, however, should not be toward a single area, but rather distributed over many parts of the country. It is, of course, ironical to speak of directed migration at a time at which the mere mention of social planning makes so many people see red.

The reviewer's few critical observations are not to be taken to diminish the importance of this book. The teacher of race relations might profitably turn to *Color Blind* for a vigorous point of view candidly presented and for practical directives for interracial programs. What makes Margaret Halsey's book successful is a sympathetic familiarity with the facts rather than the mastery of a technique of investigation.

SAMUEL M. STRONG

Carleton College.

For This We Fought. By Stuart Chase. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1946. Pp. x + 123. \$1.00.

A readable common sense discussion of American goals is presented in this final book of a series of six on American economic problems in the war era. Mr. Chase looks at the problems through the eyes of a returned war veteran and discusses their solution in the light of war time accomplishments. Army questionnaires, government surveys, college research studies, and research center surveys are used to determine what it is that soldiers and civilians want. He shows that both groups have the common

goals of security and the fear of unemployment.

"The Five-year Miracle," as he terms the years of war production, shows that "We in America can have anything we want in a material way, provided we want it badly enough to organize and discipline ourselves. Furthermore, the story shows such vast dislocation from the 'normal' economy of 1928, that any return is out of the question."

Mr. Chase points out that although there is some danger of inflation in the near future, the real danger is deflation with its millions of unemployed. He presents four models of government policy as possible roads government might follow. Plan "A" he lists as a mixed system more or less hit and miss as we now have. Plan "B" is a mixed system with direction after the order of Sweden's "Middle Way." Plan "C" is an automatic competitive system, and "D" the Authoritarian State. Plans "C" and "D" he considers highly improbable, "A" very undesirable, and "B" as the most likely course to follow.

"The real question before the country," he states, "is not whether we are going to return to the gilded age of Astor, Vanderbilt, and Morgan, with wages at a dollar a day. The question is whether we are going to wait for welfare economy to come hit or miss, (*per model "A"*) or plan its coming intelligently" (*per model "B"*.) Model "B" will not be brought by gremlins. "We must go out and fight for it," he states. But, people will not get what they want until they get the actual power to command it. As he points out, "Government is rated the most powerful by many people but not by speakers in Union Square, who name Big Business. In the strike crisis of 1946, government and unions seemed to have lined up against Big Steel for 18½ cents an hour. But Big Steel got a price rise." In expecting the planning and directing of the course of government to be turned over to the social scientists, *per model "B,"* Mr. Chase seems rather sanguine in the light of present day events. Many readers would be unable to develop his enthusiasm for supposing that people in power would practice self-denial

for the purpose of gaining a generally desirable social goal. The reluctance with which managers of business supported the war effort until after governmental guarantee of profits doesn't indicate a self-sacrificing attitude.

All students of government, and lay men as well, will find *For This We Fought* informative, understandable, and interestingly written. He has accomplished his major purpose in making this book very thought provoking.

JESSE W. REEDER

Brigham City, Utah.

Social Pathology. By John Lewis Gillin. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1946. Pp. viii + 645. \$4.50.

This book is a scholarly presentation by Dr. John Lewis Gillin, Professor Emeritus of Sociology, University of Wisconsin, of a mass of material on thirty-three different pathological conditions in human society. The volume is divided into two books. The first book, a pathology of personality, discusses such topics as sickness, blindness and deafness, disablement, drug addiction, alcoholism, mental deficiency, mental disorder, suicide and personality disorganization.

The second book of this volume, the pathology of social organization, consists of four parts. Part I (the pathology of domestic relationships) discusses such topics as the unmarried, widowhood, divorce and desertion, dependent and neglected childhood, the social pathology of childhood and adolescence, unmarried parenthood, immorality and vice, prostitution, transiency, and old age. Part II (the social pathology of social classes and groups) discusses such topics as the pathology of class and group relationships, the pathology of urban society, the pathology of rural society, and the pathology of international relationships. Part III (the pathology of economic relationships) discusses such topics as maladjustment in the economic system, poverty and dependency, women and children in industry and unemployment. Part IV (the pathology of cultural relationships) discusses such topics

as the pathology of religion, the maladjustment of moral standards, delinquency and crime, civil liberties, and personal and social reconstruction.

Book one is perhaps the strongest section of the volume, and might be used as a text in a course in pathology. The sections on sickness and disablement are especially good.

Such a mass of material is assembled under so many sub-headings in the second book of the volume that one wonders if it should not be broken down into a number of courses, such as, criminology, poverty and dependency, urban sociology, child welfare, the family, etc. For a current, birdseye picture of the whole panorama of social problems however, this book does a good job. Especially is Dr. Gillin to be commended for his chapter on civil liberties, pathology of international relationships, and the pathology of class and group relationships. The chapter on the pathology of religion seems to be rather weak.

Sufficient statistics and supporting material are brought in to back up all the discussions. However, some of the statistical tables are rather old.

DANIEL RUSSEL

Agricultural and Mechanical
College of Texas

The Public and Its Problems. By John Dewey. Chicago: Gateway Books, 1946. Pp xii + 224. \$2.50.

The book was first written about 20 years ago, but the basic ideas still hold. The current volume is a full revision and expansion of a series of lectures given at Kenyon College, Ohio, in 1926. It is divided into six parts: Search for the Public; Discovery of the State; the Democratic State; Eclipse of the Public; Search for the Great Community; and the Problem of Method. Essentially the thesis is that we are evolving from a public to a great community which is our one hope of world peace.

Dewey contends that the social sciences must, as the physical sciences, break with the method of searching for the causal

nexus. "What is needed to direct and make fruitful social inquiry is a method which proceeds on the basis of the interrelations of observable acts and their results."

Complications arising from the use of certain terms as symbols of ideas are presented. Considerable space is devoted to the lag between the development of material and non-material culture. Our technology has developed to a point where man must learn to manage the machines he has developed or perish.

The final chapter deals with the problem of method. One of the major problems is "That thought has been diverted from the investigation of factual subject matter to a discussion of concepts". A second problem is that "political theories have shared in the absolutistic character of philosophy generally". Social change must be taken into account and when theories and even laws are developed we must recognize that "the phenomena and laws are not altered, but invention based upon them modifies the human situation."

The solution requires that "thinking and beliefs be experimental, not absolutistic." The following procedures are involved: "First, that those concepts, general principles, theories and dialectical developments which are indispensable to any systematic knowledge be shaped and tested as tools of inquiry. Secondly, that policies and proposals for social action be treated as working hypotheses, not as programs to be rigidly adhered to and executed."

W. J. TUDOR

Iowa State College.

Problems in Prejudice. By Eugene Hartley. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. xii + 124. \$2.00.

In this volume an analysis is made of the factors responsible for the tendency on the part of individuals toward "irrational and confused separation of one's own group from that of other groups." Three different studies were undertaken. In the first place, questionnaires were submitted to students at several colleges in the United States.

Within the framework of this questionnaire it was possible for the student to express prejudice toward 35 different ethnic groups (three of which were fictitious), seven religious groups and seven political groups. The author found evidence that supports the conclusion arrived at by Murphy and Likert in their earlier studies, namely, that "the degree of tolerance expressed by individuals is a generalized function of the individual and is not completely determined by the specific group toward which the attitude is directed." This was demonstrated by the fact that prejudice was often as prevalent against the groups with fictitious names as against the actually existing groups. However, the author concludes that it is very improbable that an individual's attitude toward any one group results from a unitary characteristic within the individual.

In order to determine the factors responsible for individual differences with relation to levels of tolerance, a second type of study was made. A clinical analysis of a group of students at City College of New York was carried out. As a result of these studies the author was able to suggest a number of characteristics of both the tolerant and intolerant personality.

Finally, an attempt was made to analyze the relation of the prejudice of the individual to his system of values. This was done with the aid of Stern's concept of "salience".

The author is to be complimented for the methodology used to investigate this important problem. His conclusions are an important contribution toward a clarification of the factors involved in prejudice.

REED H. BRADFORD

Brigham Young University.

Career Opportunities. Edited by Mark Morris. Washington, D. C.: Progress Press, 1946. Pp. ix + 354. \$3.25.

The content of this book is divided into twelve headings: Industry, Business, Agriculture, Engineering Physical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Medical Sciences, Social

Sciences, Modern Arts, Education, Religion and Miscellaneous. The first subdivision under "Industry" is, "Aviation Occupations" which is further divided into, "The Job of the Airplane Mechanic" and "The Job of the Airplane Pilot". Each of the ninety odd jobs is described under several standard heads such as: What Does the Airplane Mechanic Do?; How Do You Qualify as an Airplane Mechanic? etc.

This review is primarily from the point of view of the veteran or other young persons concerned with the choice of an occupation. The book is well organized but also has some decided shortcomings. The Publisher's Note states that "... no book can possibly describe adequately all of the occupations of modern society," yet this is what the editor seems to try to do. Therein lies the book's chief weakness; it attempts too much in 354 pages. Veteran acquaintances, who have read sections, state that a fairly adequate introduction to an occupation is given, but that each occupational description is too brief. In fairness, it must be stated that most descriptions carry reference to further information. Each occupational description is but little more than a springboard or introduction for those desiring occupational guidance. On the back cover of the book we read, "It tells the reader exactly what he needs to know in order to enter a particular trade, business, or profession." This is sales talk, not fact. The chief value of the book, as a brief guide to occupations, is somewhat impaired by a poor job of editing.

LINDEN S. DODSON

U. S. Veterans Administration.

Tuberculosis in the United States. By U. S. Public Health Service, Tuberculosis Control Division. National Tuberculosis Association, 1946. Pp. vii + 190.

Tuberculosis in the United States, Graphic Presentation, Volume 4, prepared by the staff of the Field Studies Section of the Tuberculosis Control Division, United States Public Health Service, is one of a series of volumes presenting tuberculosis death rates

(1939-1941) by population characteristics such as race, sex, age, and residence. The data of this volume are county tuberculosis mortality rates and numbers based upon the place of residence of the deceased. The rates are given in both map and table form wherever the population of 1940 was sufficiently large to warrant the computation of a rate. County rates without any further population breakdown for the United States and each state are presented graphically. Further county data, both rates and numbers, classified by race (white and non-white) and residence (rural and urban) are given in tables.

The volume has value for both action and research agencies in the field of public health. It presents data for locating areas where concentration of effort is needed. To the local action agency it furnishes one means by which it may decide whether to continue a tuberculosis eradication program or to assign more of its efforts and funds to other health programs. To research agencies it supplies data needed to locate areas for three types of studies:

- (1) lead and lag in the eradication of a major disease (tuberculosis),
- (2) rate of transference of an agency's customary activities from a health program where no longer needed to another health program,
- (3) ecological factors in relation to a major disease (tuberculosis).

ZETTA BANKERT

University of Missouri.

Rural Life and the Church. By David E. Lindstrom. Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press, 1946. Pp. xi + 205. \$2.50.

In revising and expanding *The Church and Rural Life* published in 1939, Dr. Lindstrom has shifted the words in the title. This is consistent with the fact that he is interested mainly in interpreting rural life. There is still comparatively little in the functions, problems and procedures of book regarding the objectives, backgrounds,

churches. It is prepared "as a text for short courses in seminaries, special schools, camps and discussion groups," to use where rural pastors and other church leaders study socio-economic factors affecting the American farm family.

Eight chapters in the book supply well-organized information regarding (1) The People and the Land, (2) Groups in Rural Life, (3) The Institutions in Rural Life, (4) Farmers Organizations, (5) Government and the Farmer, (6) The Farmer and His Community, (7) The Impact of Rural on Urban Life, and (8) Significant Rural Life Trends. The material used is up to date, well selected, effectively condensed and clearly interpreted. References are cited in footnotes and at the end of each chapter the reader finds lists of books and pamphlets that suggest leads for further study.

Brief forewords by Dr. Mark A. Dawber, Monsignor L. G. Ligutti and Dr. Charles L. Stewart significantly point out that this book is a social science contribution which is appreciated by both Protestant and Catholic rural church leaders.

W. H. STACY

Ames, Iowa

Furrow's End. Edited by David B. Greenberg. New York: Greenberg, Publishers, 1946. Pp. xi + 307. \$3.00.

Mr. David B. Greenberg is the ideal man to compile a book of short stories about farm life, for he is, among other things, an active farmer and stock raiser. Moreover, he has exercised good literary judgment in choosing the selections for *Furrow's End*, for he has not stressed life in one part of the country at the expense of another. He includes stories of farm life in Florida and California, as well as North Dakota and Ohio. His gesture toward the rest of the globe is not quite satisfying, however, for he includes only Russia and Denmark, and gives nothing on China or India.

The book opens with Tolstoi's interpretation of the ancient theme of a greedy man failing in his attempt to walk around as much land as he could from sunup to sundown, and finding all he needs is the six

feet to bury him. From there the stories run the gamut of universal human emotions as expressed in such experiences as love and hate, frustration and success, wealth and poverty, and the various gradations between these extremes.

Seriousness is not the only merit of the book, however, for the dramatic tenseness is relieved by two of the most amusing stories in all literature; the tale of Paul Bunyan's cornstalk and the Arkansas pig that won a race. Nor has Mr. Greenberg been content to use only the big names, such as Louis Bromfield, Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings, and William Saroyan. One of his best choices, "The Widow's Way," is by Henry Exall, a Dallas, Texas business man known only locally; and the last place is given to Jesse Stuart, who recently made the best seller list with his *Taps for Private Tussie*. His contribution here is a love story of the Kentucky hills, called "Squatter Woman."

The beauty of the book lies in the fact that it reveals a diversity of farm life that cannot be obtained from the writings of a single author with one point of view. Finally the book shows how vital rural life is to our civilization and how the fundamental human values remain the same in a rapidly changing external world.

WALTER E. MYERS

Illinois State Library.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

- Sociology*. By Richard T. LaPiere. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946. Pp. xiv + 572. \$3.75.
- The Public Works Wage Rate and Some of its Economic Effects*. By Viola Wyckoff. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. 313. \$3.50.
- A Look at Our Schools*. By Paul R. Mort and William S. Vincent. New York: Cattell and Company, Inc., 1946. Pp. x + 115. \$1.50.
- The Meeting of East and West*. By F. C. S. Northrop. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. xxii + 531. \$6.00.
- The Problem of Fertility*. Edited by Earl T. Engle. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1946. Pp. viii + 254. \$3.75.
- Land Use in Central Boston*. By Walter Firey. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1947. Pp. xv + 367. \$5.00.
- Adjustment to Physical Handicap and Illness: A Survey of Social Psychology of Physique and Disability*. By Roger G. Barker, Beatrice A. Wright and Mollie R. Gonick. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1946. Pp. xi + 372. \$2.00.
- The Epic of Latin America*. By John A. Crow. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1946. Pp. xxiv + 756. \$5.00.
- Folks Do Get Born*. By Marie Campbell. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1946. Pp. x + 245. \$3.00.
- Practical Applications of Democracy*. By George B. de Huszar. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945. Pp. xvi + 140. \$2.00.
- Small Communities in Action*. By Jean and Jess Ogden. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. xix + 244. \$3.00.
- The Spoilage*. By Dorothy S. Thomas and Richard Nishimoto. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1946. Pp. xx + 388. \$3.75.
- Chinese Family and Society*. By Olga Lang. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1946. Pp. xv + 395. \$4.00.
- The German People*. By Veit Valentin. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1946. Pp. xxix + 730. \$6.00.
- Farm Organization and Management*. By G. W. Forster. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xix + 490. \$4.65.
- Elements of Farm Management*. By John A. Hopkins. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xxi + 489. \$4.65.

- Psychology for the Millions.* By Abraham P. Sperling. New York: Frederick Fell, Inc., Publisher, 1946. Pp. xiv + 397. \$3.00.
- Food, Famine and Relief.* League of Nations. New York: American Book-Stratford Press, Inc., 1946. Pp. 162. \$1.50.
- Population and Peace in the Pacific.* By Warren Thompson. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. 397. \$3.75.
- The Navaho.* By Clyde Kluckhohn and Dorothea Leighton. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1946. Pp. xx + 258. \$4.50.
- Sociology of the American Indians.* By S. M. Barrett. Kansas City, Missouri: Burton Publishing Company, 1946. Pp. 142. \$2.00.
- Land for the Small Man.* By Newlin R. Smith. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. xiii + 287. \$3.50.
- Character Culture of Youth Controlling Factor in Juvenile Conduct.* By Judge Fred G. Johnson. Kansas City, Missouri: Burton Publishing Company, 1946. Pp. 178. \$2.00.
- Dust Storms, 1850-1900.* By James C. Malin. In *The Kansas Historical Quarterly*, Lawrence, Kansas. Volume XIV, May, 1946. Number 2.
- Community Centers as Living War Memorials.* Compiled by James Dahir. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1946. Pp. 63. \$.50.

News Notes and Announcements

Edited by Leland B. Tate

THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Minutes of Business Meetings
Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois
December 28 and 30, 1946

The first business meeting was called to order at 2:00 p.m. December 28 by President Paul H. Landis who presided.

Minutes of the March, 1946 business meetings as published in the June 1946 issue of our Journal, *Rural Sociology* were approved.

The secretary-treasurer made his annual reports on finances and membership. It was moved by O. D. Duncan, seconded and carried to receive the reports and to publish them in the March, 1947 issue of the Journal.

The assistant managing editor of the Journal read the annual report of the managing editor. It was moved, seconded and carried to receive this report and to publish it in the March, 1947 issue of the Journal.

President Landis appointed two temporary committees as follows: an Auditing Committee composed of George W. Hill and Olaf Larson; and a Resolutions Committee composed of Donald Hay and James White.

The Election Committee composed of Walter Slocum and Charles Nelson previously appointed by the President reported on the tabulation of ballots and revealed that the following persons were elected for 1947:

President: W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Vice-President: Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky

Secretary-Treasurer: Leland B. Tate, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

New member of the Executive Committee: Douglas Ensminger, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

New member of the Board of Editors: C. Horace Hamilton, N. C. State College, Raleigh, N. C.

New member of the Teaching Committee: Judson Landis, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan.

New member of the Research Committee: W. H. Sewell, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

New member of the Extension Committee: Gordon Blackwell, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Representative on the Executive Committee of the American Sociological Society: Edmund des. Brunner, Columbia University, New York City, N. Y.

Members of the Research Committee presented some ideas for improvement of rural research and led a discussion of ways and means to coordinate research activities.

At the end of the discussion there were some announcements about changes in the program, after which the meeting was adjourned.

The second business meeting was called to order at 11:30 a.m. December 30 by President Paul H. Landis who presided.

The proposed amendments to the constitution and by-laws published in the September, 1946 issue of the Journal were read and explained by the secretary and discussed by several of those present. It was moved by Lowry Nelson, seconded and carried to approve all proposed amendments except the one pertaining to a life membership. After a motion by W. A. Anderson to include the life membership item had resulted in a tie vote, it was moved by T. A. Tripp, seconded and carried to table the matter until next year.

The president was instructed to appoint a committee to present a report at the next annual meeting on how a life membership should be handled.

Douglas Ensminger reported for the Extension Committee and said the U. S. Agricultural Extension Service had adopted last year's report as a guide and that plans were

underway with Foundation aid to have a spring meeting of some college administrators, rural sociologists and others to consider ways and means to make rural sociology a more vital force in the land-grant colleges and the states they serve.

Charles Loomis, editor-in-chief of the Journal, expressed his appreciation for the aid given him and the associate editors throughout the past year. He also commented upon the present status of the Journal and the suggestions which had been made for moving it to one of the institutions which had requested the privilege and opportunity of sponsoring it. After some discussion it was moved by Ray Wakely, seconded by W. A. Anderson and carried to refer the request to the Board of Editors and instruct it to establish within the next year a definite policy relative to the location of the Journal and to bring in a report at the next annual meeting.

Donald Hay presented the report of the Resolutions Committee and moved its adoption. It was seconded and carried to accept the report and publish it in the Journal as a supplement to the minutes.

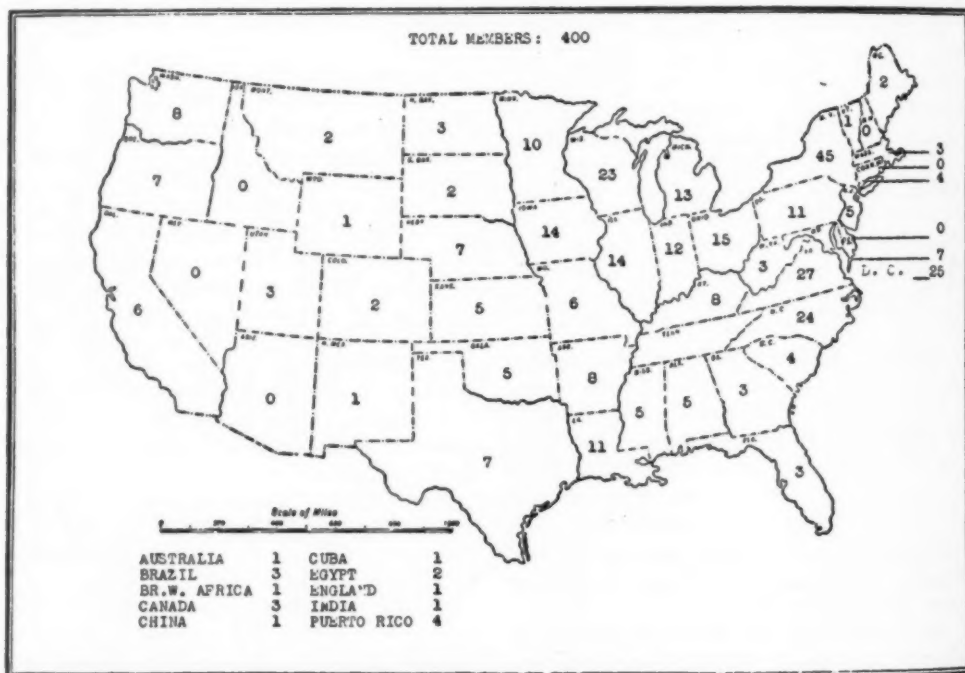
It was moved by Edgar Schuler, seconded and carried that the President appoint a committee of three members to work with a committee of the American Library Association and recommend research for the improvement of rural library service.

It was moved by Irving Sanders, seconded and carried that a committee be appointed to work out the details of a plan by which the Rural Sociological Society may participate in our emerging world social organization.

It was moved by Olaf Larson, seconded and carried that a committee be appointed to work with those preparing plans for the 1950 Census.

It was moved by Ray Wakely, represent-

DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERSHIP IN THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY, 1946



ative of a group interested in regional research, seconded and carried that the following recommendations be published with the minutes:

1. We urge the research committee to emphasize consideration of problems in the development of regional research.
2. We recommend the expansion of the research committee for this purpose.
3. We suggest that the Society give careful consideration to the statement by Lowry Nelson relative to the place of rural sociology in Flannagan-Hope research, and that a statement approved by the research and executive committees be sent to the Research Coordinating Committee of the directors of the agricultural experiment stations.

President-elect W. A. Anderson asked for an expression of opinion of those present relative to the next annual meeting with the following results: A majority favored a joint meeting with the American Sociological Society; a majority favored a joint meeting with the Farm Economic Association at a time other than during the Christmas holidays; 14 were in favor of a joint meeting with the Farm Economic Association at Christmas time in a place other than in the East.

George W. Hill presented the report of the Auditing Committee. It was moved, recorded and carried that the financial report of the Managing Editor of the Journal and of the Secretary-Treasurer be approved and asserted.

There being no further business the meeting was adjourned.

RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE REPORT

By DONALD HAY and JAMES WHITE

December 30, 1946

1. We propose the continuation of the committee on the cooperation of rural sociologists with interested personnel in the so-called "non-land grant" colleges in determining a definite statement of the contributions of rural sociology to general or liberal arts education.

(a). We propose in line with this general objective that invitations be sent such non-land grant colleges to submit scientific and pertinent theses or articles or notes to the Journal of the Rural Sociological Society.

(b). We urge publication by the Society of a directory listing the names and location of all non-land grant colleges teaching sociology.

(c). We urge that statements as to this committee's findings be sent to the non-land grant colleges.

2. We propose that a committee be appointed for the purpose of ascertaining the extent to which the curricula of land grant colleges provide adequate training for graduate students or senior students in rural sociology in qualitative methods which might be or have been used and their application in rural sociological research.

3. We feel that since qualitative analysis provides a major method to study sociological phenomena, greater emphasis should be placed upon training graduate students in methods of qualitative analysis. Such training in the past has been too unorganized and the graduate student arrives at the period of thesis research ill equipped in qualitative analysis.

4. We propose that a committee be appointed to consider the advisability of setting up a standard list of subjects or topics which seem to be most necessary as a standard course in rural sociology for three levels of instruction:

- (a). A standard list for general class room purposes.
- (b). A standard list for service courses.
- (c). A standard list for field courses.

5. We propose that an annual listing of schools be published by the Society showing the categories of the courses of instruction by schools.

6. We encourage the expansion of rural sociological research about villages and farming areas bordering on urban districts. The study of these rural areas will add greatly to an adequate understanding of rural-urban interactions including the in-

fluence of cities on rural life and the influence of the country on city life.

7. With the passage of the Flanagan-Hope Act, several critical areas of research in connection with agricultural marketing need alteration by rural sociologists. Such problems as consumer preferences, responses to marketing practices, group relationships in cooperative marketing, health, housing, and impacts of population changes on market demand ought to be studied in particular. We encourage rural sociologists to make every effort to expand research in these fields.

Michigan Sociological Society. The following officers were elected at the society's meeting December 7, 1946 at Wayne University in Detroit: Alfred McClung Lee, Wayne University, President; Rupert C. Koeninger,

Central Michigan College, Mount Pleasant, Vice-President; Elmer Akers, Hillsdale College, Secretary-Treasurer; and Solon Kimball, Michigan State College, and Theodore M. Newcomb, University of Michigan, Members of the Executive Committee. The Wayne Sociological Society, of which Donald C. Marsh is President, served as host.

North Carolina State College. Eugene A. Wilkening was appointed Instructor in Rural Sociology September 1, 1946, after serving with the U. S. Army four years. Mr. Wilkening was Research Assistant in Rural Sociology at the University of Missouri and was granted a Master of Science degree by that institution in 1939. Immediately preceding his entrance into the Army, he studied Sociology for nine months at the University of Chicago.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

By the Secretary-Treasurer

| | | |
|---|---------|------------------|
| Gross balance, January 1 | | \$ 702.24 |
| Plus amt. from 1945 sales of journals, received | | |
| Jan. 10— | \$62.77 | |
| Less bal. for 1945 subscriptions paid Jan. 15— | 530.00 | 467.23 |
| Net balance | | \$ 235.01 |
| Receipts from membership dues, Jan. 1 to Dec. 1: | | |
| 3 part payments @ 50¢ | \$ 1.50 | |
| 54 student memberships @ \$2.00 | 108.00 | |
| 332 regular active memberships @ \$3.00 | 996.00 | |
| 4 joint membership @ \$3.50 | 14.00 | |
| 3 misc. payments @ \$3.10, 5.00 and 12.00 | 20.10 | 1140.60 |
| Receipts from 67 luncheon tickets @ \$1.70, March 2 | | 113.90 |
| Receipts from 1946 sales of journals, received December 3 | | 15.68 |
| Total of net balance and receipts to December 5 | | \$1504.19 |
| Expenditures: | | |
| For 1946 subscriptions (52x\$2) (348 x \$2.50) | | \$ 974.00 |
| For printing | | 44.94 |
| For postage and supplies | | 71.79 |
| For Society luncheon, March 2 | | 116.96 |
| For mimeographing research report | | 9.42 |
| For reprints of research report | | 5.67 |
| For bank service charge on non-par item | | 0.50 |
| Total of expenditures to December 5 | | \$1223.28 |
| Balance as of December 5 | | \$ 280.91 |

MEMBERS IN THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY, 1946

Compared with 1945 and 1944

| Class | 1946 | 1945 | 1944 |
|----------------|------|------|------|
| Regular—active | 340 | 348 | 298 |
| Student | 52 | 40 | 38 |
| Joint | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Contributing | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Military | 0 | 7 | 19 |
| Honorary | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 400 | 399 | 358 |

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

By the Managing Editor

Fiscal Year January 1, to December 20, 1946

Receipts

| | |
|--|-------------|
| Cash on hand January 1, 1946 | \$ 1,454.92 |
| From Rural Sociological Society on 1946 business | 974.00 |
| General Subscriptions and Sales | 1,107.69* |
| Reprint Sales to Authors | 243.15 |
| Sales of back numbers for the Society | 19.60 |
| Advertizing | 27.00 |
| Subsidy from N. C. State College | 250.00 |

Total Income \$ 4,076.36

Expenditures

| | |
|--|---------------|
| Printing JOURNAL | \$ 1,113.52** |
| Reprints | 219.20** |
| Postage and Other Communications | 81.58 |
| Stationery and advertizing | 85.05 |
| Supplies and Equipment | 111.06 |
| Travel | 18.45 |
| Drayage | 6.60 |
| Copyright Office (10 numbers) | 20.00 |
| Binding Journal Copies | 4.45 |
| Educational Press Association Membership | 5.00 |
| Refund on Subscriptions | 5.00 |
| To Society on Memberships | 11.00 |
| To Society for Sale of Back Numbers | 15.68 |

Total Expenditures \$ 1,696.59

Total Income \$ 4,076.36

Total Expenditures 1,696.59

Cash on hand December 20, 1946 \$ 2,379.77*

* Includes \$692.00 for 1947 subscriptions.

** Does not include the December 1946 issues.

FINAL PROGRAM

Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, December 28-30, 1946

Saturday, December 28

10:00-12:00 a. m.—Registration, Mezzanine.

2:00 p. m.—Business session, Conference Room 12, 4th Floor.

3:00- 5:30 p. m.—Effective Teaching in Rural Sociology—LOWRY NELSON, University of Minnesota, *Presiding*.

"The Community: A Laboratory for Teacher Education"

EVELYN R. HODGDON, State Teachers Col., Oneonta, N. Y.

"Rural Sociology Field Courses as Agents for Community Improvements"

TROY L. STEARNS, Michigan State College.

"Materials for a Standardized Basic Course in Rural Sociology"

WAYNE T. GRAY, DePauw University.

"An Experiment in Teaching Rural Sociology"

WILLIAM J. TUDOR, Iowa State College.

Discussion: DOUGLAS G. MARSHAL, University of Minnesota.

Sunday, December 29

9:00-11:00 a. m.—Extension—A. F. WILEDEN, University of Wisconsin, *Presiding*.

"Some Contributions of Sociological Research in Developing the Extension Program"

R. W. ROSKELLEY, Utah State Agricultural College.

"Contemporary Trends in Rural Leadership"

J. E. NUQUIST, Madison, Wisconsin.

Discussion: W. H. STACY, Iowa State College.

ROBERT A. POLSON, Cornell University.

11:00-12:00 a. m.—Committee to Secure Greater Cooperation with Non-Land-Grant Colleges, J. H. KOLB, *Chairman*—an open meeting.3:30- 5:30 p. m.—New Challenges in Research—CHARLES P. LOOMIS, Michigan State College, *Presiding*.

"Needed Research in Rural Housing"

ROBERT T. MCMILLAN, Oklahoma A. & M.

"Library Research"

PAUL HOWARD, American Library Association.

Discussion: W. F. KUMLIEN, South Dakota State College.

WALTER SLOCUM, Washington, D. C.

7:30- 9:30 p. m.—Rural Population—CONRAD TAEUBER, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, *Presiding*.

“The Optimum Rural-Urban Population Balance”

WALTER FIREY, University of Texas.

“Differential Fertility of Rural Families”

GEORGE W. HILL, University of Wisconsin.

“Medical Needs of the Rural Population of Michigan”

CHARLES R. HOFFER, Michigan State College.

Discussion: HAROLD T. CHRISTENSEN, Brigham Young University.

Monday, December 30

9:00 a. m.—Presidential Address: “Folkways to Social Policy”—PAUL H. LANDIS, State College of Washington.

9:45-11:45 a. m.—Planning and Policy—WALTER MCKAIN, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, *Presiding*.

“The Rural Sociologist’s Contribution to World Social Organization”

IRWIN T. SANDERS, University of Kentucky.

“Rural Rehabilitation—Theory and Practice”

OLAF F. LARSON, Cornell University.

Discussion: JOHN USSEM, University of Wisconsin.

HERBERT F. LIONBERGER, University of Missouri.

11:45-12:30—Final Business Session.

